1990

A Historical Perspective of the Elementary Reading Program in the Chicago Public Schools: 1945-1980

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A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF THE ELEMENTARY READING PROGRAM IN THE CHICAGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS: 1945 - 1980

by

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A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

January

1990

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

No man is an island unto himself, and no man or woman could accomplish a task such as this without the help, co-operation, and encouragement of many people. I am indebted and most appreciative for their support.

To God, for giving me the health, strength, mental capacities, and perseverance to see this project through to completion, I am thankful.

To Dr. Gerald L. Gutek, doctoral director, my deepest and sincerest appreciation for his support, specific suggestions, constructive guidance, and understanding.

To Dr. Robert C. Cienkus and Dr. John Wozniak, committee members, my sincere gratitude for their constructive criticisms, conscientious input, and support.

To Dr. Florence Williams, teacher librarian, Bureau of Libraries, Chicago Board of Education, I am thankful for her help in obtaining materials.

To Mrs. Mary Ann Ross, librarian, Bureau of Libraries, Chicago Board of Education, I am most grateful for her help, expertise, knowledge of primary source materials, and her cooperation in making them available to me.

To Ms. Yolanda Crane and Ms. Dorothy Harris, typists and friends; and Mrs. Marguerite Vellos, editor and friend, for their time, skills, and diligence, I am deeply grateful.

To Ms. Margaret Thompson, my "sister," for her love and support.

To Mrs. Catherine E. Blake, my mother, for her loving help and support, I am most thankful.

To Mr. and Mrs. Rufus Gates, my father and "other mother," for their concern, love, and confidence, my sincere thanks.

To Mrs. Cheryl R. Gholar and Mrs. Mary M. McPherson, my dearest friends, my sincere thanks for their love and moral support.

To Dr. Mattie C. Williams, my supervisor, but more importantly, my friend, I am most grateful for her prayers, support, and encouragement.

To Mr. Arnold N. Riggs, my husband, for being my tower of strength, for his love, support, and understanding, I am eternally grateful.

Finally, to my other family members and friends, too numerous to name, I am most grateful for their help and support.

VITA

The author, Ernestine Gates Riggs, is the daughter of Catherine E. Blake and Rufus Gates. She was born May 18, 1938 in LaGrange, Georgia.

Her elementary and secondary education was obtained in the public schools of Flint, Michigan. She was graduated from Fairview Elementary School in June, 1951; from Whittier Junior High in June, 1954; and from Central High School in 1957.

In September 1957, she enrolled in Flint Junior College and received an Associate of Arts degree in June, 1959. In September 1959, she enrolled in Chicago Teachers College (CTC), now known as Chicago State University (CSU). She graduated from CTC in December 1962 with a Bachelor of Education degree. Upon graduation, she was immediately employed as a teacher in the public schools. In March of 1963, she was awarded certification status. She enrolled in a Master's program at Roosevelt University in 1968; however, she terminated her classes there to join her military husband in Misawa, Japan for a tour of duty.

She, along with her husband and son, remained in Japan for six years, during which time she was employed by the Department of Defense (DOD) Overseas Schools. During her tenure with DOD, she earned numerous commendations and awards, including that of Outstanding Elementary Teacher of America for 1974. She also enrolled in an extension program

offered by the University of Southern California and received her Master of Science in Education degree in 1974. In 1976, she and her family returned home to Chicago where she resumed her teaching career with the Chicago Board of Education.

She taught numerous grades, developed and conducted various programs and projects until 1980, when she applied for the position of a teacher-writer and was selected to work at the Board offices in the Bureau of Language Arts, writing and developing reading curriculum. She is currently still working in this bureau as the citywide language arts coordinator.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this dissertation is to describe and analyze reading programs (grades 1-8) in the Chicago Public Schools from an historical perspective. The historical perspective that the researcher will establish will be two-dimensional: (1) to identify the socio-cultural values conveyed in the narratives or contents of the readers; (2) to identify the major strategies or theories that supported the reading programs. The years 1945 to 1980 are used as terminal dates. The year 1945 marked the end of World War II and the beginning of the post-war era. The year 1980 will bring the study to a close in the recent past.

Since the beginning of the first schools in America, reading has been the most important subject in the curriculum and continues to be so up to the present time. To follow the progress of the developments in reading is to follow the history of education. To analyze the methods, techniques, and instructional materials utilized in the past is to provide valuable information on reading mate- rials and techniques for use by teachers and researchers now and in the future.

In addition to examining and analyzing the reading programs in the Chicago Public Schools during the time frame designated, this study will also include an earlier period in the history of Chicago in order to establish an histori-

cal framework from which the writer can trace the progress and developments of reading through various periods, events, and social movements. It is not the purpose of this writer to pass judgement or create a debate on which methods, techniques, or strategies were most effective, but to present factual information. Reading is and has always been an "abstract" type of subject which requires the use of mental processes and physical factors. Abstract because it, seemingly, cannot be defined with an explicit definition with which all reading experts will readily agree. In the publication Becoming a Nation of Readers, reading is defined as "the process of constructing meaning from written texts. It is a complex skill requiring the coordination of a number of interrelated sources of information."[1] The only agreement as to what reading is, is that it is a complex process; the controversy is how best to teach it.

The researcher selected this topic because of the interest (and frustrations) of her many years of teaching reading. As previously stated, the primary focus has always been on how to teach reading--the best methods, strategies, and materials. Extensive research in reading methodology is constantly going on; experts in the field are continually developing new learning theories that promise to

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[1]Richard C. Anderson, Elfrieda H. Hiebert, Judith A. Scott, and Ian A.G. Wilkinson, Becoming a Nation of Readers: The Report on the Commission on Reading, (Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Education, 1985), 3.

provide insight into "Why Johnny Can't Read." Reading strategists are searching daily for new approaches and, for more effective and efficient ways to teach children how to read.

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CHAPTER I

READING IN THE CHICAGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS: AN HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

Man, from the beginning of time has sought knowledge and understanding. The human mind has always sought answers to the "why, what, when, where, and who." The acquisition of knowledge has been both informal and formal: informally through the teaching of parents, elders, and peers; formally through the establishment of schools.

Before the birth of Christ, civilizations such as those of the Greeks and the Romans established formal schools. The Greeks had the "palaestra" or open air school, where music, gymnastics, poetry (such as Homer's Iliad and Odyssey), writing, and reading were taught to aristocratic and privileged young boys. The Romans had the "ludus" or primary school, where young aristocratic boys and girls (when admitted) learned the alphabet, reading, writing, and arithmetic.

The desire to have a literate population of citizenry arrived with the pilgrims on the Mayflower. When the first settlers made the voyage to the New World, they brought many valuable possessions with them, among which were books. Each colony, be it one of the New England, Middle, or South-

ern colonies, initiated some type of educational system of schooling for its children.

The New England states established "common schools" between the years of 1820 and 1860. The term "common school" simply meant a school system that was not discriminatory as far as the religion, sex, or financial status of the student was concerned. It referred to a school system that was available to all children, one that was to be utilized by all the people, and one that was to be supported through taxes paid by all the citizens. Common or primary branches of instruction such as geography, spelling, arithmetic, reading, and writing were taught in these schools.

Parochial schools were established in the Middle Atlantic colonies, due primarily to the vast diversity of religious sects, nationalities, and cultural differences of the people who settled in that area. The Southern colonies were unique because of their system of slavery and plantations; nevertheless, they also had an educational philosophy, as well as some private schools.

The plantation gentry were usually well educated and they ensured their sons this same privilege by providing private tutors for them. These tutors were usually young men studying for a career in law or the ministry. They were well versed in Latin, Greek, and the classics. When the children of the wealthy plantation owners were old enough to

attend college, they were usually sent to Europe to attend a well established school of higher learning. The poor white farmers saw very little value in an education for their children--aside from the fact that the children were needed in the fields.[1] Educating slaves was strictly forbidden. A set of restrictive laws called "The Black Codes" declared that "under no conditions were Negroes to be taught to read and write."[2] The "Negroes" referred to were the slaves and these codes were aimed at controlling them. Nevertheless, many slaves were able to learn these skills through an indirect manner. The missionaries of a religious organization called the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts (SPG) persuaded slave owners of the importance of the spiritual conversion and teaching of their slaves. They recommended that the slaves be given time to study the scriptures and to learn to read and write. In some instances these missionaries taught the slaves themselves. In an unprecedented situation in Charleston, South Carolina they established a school for Negroes in which the teachers were Negro slaves.

Some slave owners, in spite of The Black Codes, taught

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[1]Gerald L. Gutek, Education in the United States: An Historical Perspective (New Jersey: Prentice Hall Publishing Company, 1986), 3-42.

[2]John Hope Franklin, From Slavery to Freedom: A History of Negro Americans (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1967), 85.

their slaves to read and write. Some examples include William Pease of Hardman County, Tennessee, who was taught by his owners; and a planter in Mississippi, who claimed that not only could all twenty of his slaves read, but that they also purchased their own books. The most notable example was Frederick Douglass, who was instructed by his mistress.[3] Although the Southern states lagged behind the others in establishing an organized system of common or parochial schools, they did have some type of schools in existence.

It was not until after the Civil War and the establishment of the Freedmen's Bureau that schools in the South were systematically and specifically established for Negroes. The noted black historian, Dr. John Hope Franklin, wrote the following comments about the work of the Bureau in the area of education.

> The Bureau achieved its greatest success in education. It set up or supervised all kinds of schools; day, night, Sunday, and industrial schools, as well as colleges. It cooperated closely with philanthropic and religious organizations in the North in the establishment of many institutions. Among the schools founded in this period which received aid from the Bureau were Howard University, Hampton Institute, St. Augustine's College, Atlanta University, Fisk University, Storer College, and Biddle Memorial Institute (now John C. Smith University). The American Missionary Association, The Baptists, Methodists, Presbyterians, and Episcopalians were all active in establishing schools. Education was promoted so vigorously that by 1867 schools had been set up in "the remotest counties of each of the confederate states." Teachers came down from the North in large numbers. Besides Edmund Ware at Atlanta, Samuel C. Armstrong at Hampton, and Erastus M. Cravath

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[3]Ibid., 202.

> at Fisk, there were hundreds whose services were not as widely known. In 1869 there were 9,503 teachers in the freedmen's schools of the South. Although some were Southerners, a majority of the whites came from the North. The number of Negro teachers was growing; and gradually they took over supervision of some schools.
>
> By 1870 when the educational work of the Bureau stopped, there were 247,333 pupils in 4,329 schools. The Bureau had spent more than five million dollars in schooling Negroes.[4]

Regardless of the area, the religious practices, and the social, economic, and political situations of the various states, the need and desire for a literate population was evident. However, regardless of the fact that the Southern colonies did not establish common or parochial schools, the necessity for literacy was apparent.

Early Education in Chicago

The early settlers who established the first settlement on the site of what was to be Chicago were in concert with the belief that it was important that future generations be literate. The earliest recorded report of an attempt at teaching took place in the winter of 1810-11. Robert A. Forsyth, who was thirteen years of age at the time, was paid to teach John H. Kinzie, Esq., who was six years old. The instructional material used was a spelling book that had been transported to Chicago from Detroit in a tea chest.

In 1816, a former soldier, William L. Cox, began

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[4]Ibid., 308.

teaching school in a log building that belonged to John H. Kinzie, Esq. (known as Shaw-nee-aw-kee to the Indians), a Scottish silversmith, who made trinkets and ornaments and traded them to the Indians for furs. The school building had previously housed a bakery and was located in the rear of Mr. Kinzie's garden, which was near what is now where Pine Street crosses Michigan Avenue. The school was attended by John H. Kinzie, Jr., his two sisters, another brother, and approximately three or four children from Fort Dearborn.

In 1829, a family type school was set up by the Beaubiens. J.B. Beaubien was an agent of the American Fur Company. His son, Charles H. Beaubien, taught the students who attended the school, which was located near Fort Dearborn. In June 1830, another school was established by Mr. Stephen Forbes, who was an employee of J.B. Beaubien. This school was located where Randolph Street and Michigan Avenue now meet. It was a log building, large in size, and consisting of five rooms, but gloomy in its decor. Mr. Forbes and his wife occupied part of the building as their living quarters. The year 1830 also marked the death of the Fort Dearborn settlement and the birth of Chicago as a town.[5]

Although Illinois had been admitted to the Union as

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[5]Historical Sketches of the Public School System of the City of Chicago (Chicago: Twenty-Fifth Annual Report of the Board of Education of the City of Chicago, 1816-1878), 1.

the twenty-first state in 1818, Chicago, up to this time, had remained a frontier oasis, with Fort Dearborn as its nucleus. Now that Chicago was more than a settlement, its leaders foresaw the need for a more formal organization of its educational endeavors as well as its government. Therefore, Colonel Richard J. Hamilton, who was the Commissioner of School Lands for Cook County, and Colonel Owens employed Mr. John Watkins to teach school. Mr. Watkins, in a letter to the Calumet Club in 1879, recalled his arrival and first teaching experiences in Chicago:

> I arrived in Chicago in May, 1832, and have always had the reputation of being its first school teacher. I never heard my claim disputed. I commenced teaching in the fall after the Blackhawk War, 1832. My first school-house was situated on the North Side, about half-way between the lake and the forks of the river, then known as Wolf Point. The building belonged to Colonel Richard J. Hamilton, was erected for a horse stable, and had been used as such. It was twelve feet square. My benches and desks were made of old store boxes. The school was started by private subscription. Thirty scholars were subscribed for, but many subscribed who had no children. So it was a sort of free school, there not being thirty children in town.
>
> During my first quarter I had but twelve scholars, only four of them were white; the others were quarter, half, and three-quarter Indians. After the first quarter, I moved my school into a double log-house on the West Side. It was owned by Rev. Jesse Walker, a Methodist minister, and was located near the bank of the river, where the North and South Branches meet. He resided in one end of the building, and I taught in the other. On Sundays, Father Walker preached in the room where I taught.
>
> In the winter of 1832-33, Billy Caldwell, a half-breed chief of the Pottawattamie Indians, better known as "Sauganash," offered to pay the tuition and buy the books for all Indian children who would attend school, if they would dress like the Americans and he would also pay for their clothes. But not a single one would ac-

> cept the proposition, conditioned upon the change of apparel.
>
> When I first went to Chicago, there was but one frame building there, and it was a store owned by Robert A. Kinzie. The rest of the houses were made of logs. There were no bridges; the river was crossed by canoes.
>
> I will now give you the names of some of my scholars: Thomas, William, and George Owen; Richard Hamilton; Alexander, Phillip, and Henry Beaubien; and Isaac N. Harmon, now a merchant in Chicago."[6]

In September 1833, a woman by the name of Eliza Chappel opened an infant school which was attended by approximately twenty children. The school was located in a log house on South Water Street, just west of the grounds of Fort Dearborn. Miss Chappel held classes in this building for four months to a year; after which time, she moved her school to the newly built Presbyterian Church building, located on the west side of Clark Street between Lake and Randolph Streets. Technically, Miss Chappel's school could be considered to be Chicago's first public school because it was partially maintained with funds obtained from the sale of canal lands.

A state law mandated that "income from school lands was to be divided among the schools of the township according to the number of children enrolled and according to some accounting of the number of days attended."[7] Under this

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[6]Ibid., 2.

[7]Mary J. Herrick, The Chicago Schools: A Social and Political History (Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, 1971), 23-24.

stipulation a teacher was entitled to his or her share of this public money. The number of children enrolled was to include "orphans and indigent scholars." However, the teacher was not obligated to admit "pauper" children who were "bound out" (placed in foster homes) if the people responsible for their welfare promised they would be accountable for these children being taught to read and write.[8] Miss Chappel received the first amount of money from the Chicago school fund in 1834. Mr. Watkins and his school also received a share of these public funds a year later.

The money from the Chicago school fund and two hundred dollars per quarter paid by the parents of enrolled students were the sole sources of income for the existing schools. Out of these monies were paid the teachers' salaries (male teachers were paid five hundred dollars per year, female teachers received two hundred dollars per year); the rent on the school building, the heating bill, and the bills for books and any equipment needed. The teachers were not bound to any uniformity in instructional materials or teaching methods.

On December 17, 1833, Mr. Grenville T. Sproat of Boston, Massachusetts, opened his English and Classical School for Boys. This school was located in the First Baptist Church on South Water Street near Franklin Street,

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[8]Ibid., 24.

which is now Wacker Drive. It later became a public high school with the receipt of funds from school appropriations.[9]

It has been said that teaching is a great challenge; however, this statement had an even more profound meaning during these early days of schooling in Chicago as evidenced by the words of Miss Sarah L. Warren. Miss Warren was an assistant in Mr. Sproat's school. The following is an extract from letters written by her after her experiences in Chicago:

> I boarded at Elder Freeman's. His house must have been situated some four or five blocks southeast of the school, near Mr. Snow's, with scarce a house between. What few buildings there were then, were mostly on Water Street. I used to go across without regard to streets. It was not uncommon in going to and from school, to see prairie wolves and we could hear them howl any time of the day. We were frequently annoyed by Indians; but the great difficulty we had to encounter was mud. No person, now, can have a just idea of what Chicago mud used to be. Rubbers were of no account. I purchased a pair of gentlemen's brogans and fastened them right about the ankle, but would still go over them in mud and water, and was obliged to have a pair of men's boots made.[10]

In 1835, a young Sunday school librarian by the name of John S. Wright, at his own expense, had the first building constructed that was to be used specifically as a place for

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[9]Paul Gilbert and Charles Lee Bryson, Chicago and Its Makers: A Narrative of Events from the Day of the First White Man to the Inception of the Second World's Fair (Chicago: Felix Mendelsohn, 1929), 29.

[10]Historical Sketches of the Public School System of the City of Chicago (Chicago: Twenty-Fifth Annual Report of the Board of Education of the City of Chicago, 1816-1878), 3.

teaching children. It would, however, appear that all students were not appreciative of the efforts being exerted to provide them with the literacy skills of reading and writing. This is evidenced by the experience of Mr. Brown. In 1836, Mr. John Brown was a teacher in a private school located near the corner of Dearborn and Wolcott Streets. He was, unfortunately, severely beaten by some of his students. No reason for this student attack is recorded; however, the incident was traumatic enough to cause Mr. Brown to leave the teaching profession.

John Brown's successor, Mr. Edward Murphy, took steps to ensure that history did not repeat itself at his expense. On the opening day of school, he presented a lecture to his thirty-six students, which included the rules of the school and a warning as to what would happen if such rules were disobeyed. In later years, he recalled how he gained the respect and discipline of his unruly charges:

> The day after, says Mr. Murphy, "I placed an oak sapling, an inch in diameter on my desk. That afternoon a Mr. S. who owned the building, came into the schoolroom, and seeing the walls decorated with caricatures and likenesses of almost every animal from a rabbit to an elephant, he got in a raging passion and used rather abusive language. I complained; he became more violent. I walked to my desk, took the sapling and shouted 'clear out,' which he obeyed by a rapid movement. This trifling incident effectually calmed the ring leaders, some of whom now occupy honorable and respectable positions in society."[11]

Mr. Murphy was made a public school teacher, served in the

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[11]Ibid., 5.

system until November 1838, and was paid the salary of eight hundred dollars a year.

Chicago was incorporated as a city on March 4, 1837. Seemingly this is also about the time that some semblance of official records of the public schools became available. According to these records, in 1837 there were seven school Districts. Their locations were not indicated; however, from trustee's election and other reports, it appears that Districts One, Two, and possibly Three were then located in the South Division of the city. Districts Four and Five were located in the West Division; and Districts Six and Seven, in the North Division.

The City Charter of 1837 contains provisions for the public schools of Chicago; the following is just a sampling:

> Section 83. That the Common Council of the City of Chicago, shall by virture of their office, be Commissioners of Common Schools in and for the said city, and shall have and possess all the rights, powers, and authority necessary for the proper management of said schools.
>
> Section 84. The said Common Council shall have power to lay off and divide the said city into School Districts, and from time to time alter the same and create new ones, as circumstances may require.
>
> Section 85. The Common Council shall annually appoint a number of Inspectors of Common Schools in said city, not exceeding twelve, and not less than five, and in case of a vacancy in the office the Common Council shall from time to time appoint others; which inspectors, or some of them, shall visit all the Public Schools in said city at least once a month, inquire into the progress of the Scholars, and the government of the schools, examine all persons offering themselves as candidates for teachers, and when found well qualified give them certificates thereof gratuitously, and remove them for any good cause; and it shall be the duty of the said Inspectors

to report to the Common Council from time to time, any suggestions and improvements they may deem necessary or proper for the prosperity of said schools.[12]

According to Section 85 of the Charter, the first Board of School Inspectors, in later years to be known as the Board of Education, was appointed by the city council. This board was made up on ten members, namely Thomas Wright, N.H. Bowles, John Gage, T.R. Hubbard, I.T. Hinton, Frances Peyton, G.W. Chadwick, G. Huntoon, R.J. Hamilton, and W.H. Brown. These appointments, seemingly, were only honorary as there seem to be no records indicating any meetings or any procedures initiated or adopted. However, this board did set the stage for future appointments.

In a further attempt at some conformity among the public schools, rules were established and adopted in August 1837, which designated the length of the school terms and defined what constituted a quarter of the school year. The school quarters commenced on the first Mondays in February, May, August, and November. School was in session five and a half days a week. The quarterly report for the period ending November 1, 1837, showed the following:

District	Teachers	Pupils Enrolled
One	George C. Collins	113
Two	James McClellan	107
Three	Hiram Baker	52
Five	Otis King	44
Seven	Edward Murphy	84
	Total	400[13]

[12]Ibid., 6.

[13]Ibid., 7.

In 1840, a new Board of School Inspectors was appointed. This Board consisted of seven members: William Jones; J.Y. Scammon; Isaac Arnold; N.H. Bowles, a carry over from the first Board; J.H. Scott; John Gray; and Hiram Hugunin. In November of 1840, the Board held its first meeting and elected William Jones as its president and Isaac N. Arnold as secretary. It was with this meeting that the first written records of the School Inspectors began. The meetings were held every Wednesday at 2 p.m. This schedule was followed until April of 1843, when the meetings were changed to once a month.

The population of Chicago in 1840 was 4,470; the number of inhabitants was increasing at a rapid rate. It was quite apparent that some explicit arrangements needed to be made for the establishment of more schools, for the selection of instructional materials, and for the implementation of teaching methods in order to provide this expanding populace with a formidable education. In response to this need, the Board, on December 9, moved toward more conformity in the schools by adopting specific textbooks to be used in the instruction of Chicago students. These books were Worcester's Primer, Parley's First, Second, and Third Books of History, and an Elementary Speller.[14]

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[14]John Howatt, Notes on the First Hundred Years of Chicago (Chicago: 1940), 7.

Prior to the adoption of these books, the schools had used a "hodge-podge" of textbooks for instruction. It may be recalled that the schools received money from the Chicago school fund for books and equipment, but that the teachers were not obligated or bound to any uniformity of instructional materials. The adoption of these books by the Board changed that policy. This action also served as an indication of the direction the Board would set for the schools to follow regarding instructional strategies and teaching materials. The adoption of Worcester's Primer was especially significant to the history of teaching reading in Chicago because previously little or no importance or emphasis had been placed on the teaching of beginning reading. This practice was prevalent because, as previously mentioned, the purpose of teaching reading was to enable the students to read the Bible and learn about morals, not to expand their natural intelligence. Very few books were published exclusively for the teaching of beginning reading. The Franklin Primer, published in 1802, was probably the first; it followed the pattern of the majority of books published during this period in that the lessons were centered around moral themes.

Before 1830, the few books published for the teaching of reading were characteristically not suited for young, inexperienced readers. Many of them were composed of fragmented passages, stories, and poems from writers such as Cicero, Livy, Moliere, Shakespeare, Sheridan, and Poor

Richard. These passages had very little unity and when taken out of context, made little or no sense. The level of the vocabulary words and the concepts presented often exceeded the understanding of all but the most advanced students. Around the middle of 1830, a few changes in the structure of the readers occurred; the content now centered around concepts and topics that were familiar to young readers. Although moral and religious themes continued to dominate all of the readers of this period, some were better suited for the instruction of reading than others.[15] The problem was selecting the one that would best fit the needs of the children in the schools of Chicago.

The Committee on Schools of the Common Council was cognizant of the problems it faced in the areas of providing effective instruction and relevant teaching materials to the students of Chicago. An excerpt from a report written by the Committee in January 1841 states:

> It is a thankless task to attend to the instruction of a large number of children in any city, more especially so in a place situated like Chicago, which has a greater variety of inhabitants than Joseph's coat had colors, and whose modes of feeling and thinking are as variant as the forms and hues of the flowers upon our beautiful prairies in the verdant season of the year. As our population is gathered from all points of the compass, from every quarter of the globe, composed of immigrants from every nation upon which the dews of a Merciful Providence descend. It is but natural that there should be a great difference of opinion upon all subjects, and more

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[15]Ruth Miller Elson, Guardians of Tradition: American Schoolbooks of the Nineteenth Century (Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press, 1964), 3-5.

> especially in relation to the education of youth. To reconcile these, and to provide for the efficient instruction of the children of the city, we should select good men from all parts of the city, men who shall as far as possible, represent the variant feelings and opinions of our diverse population, men who take a deep interest in the subject of education and devote a portion of their leisure time to investigating the subject and to learning the best methods of instruction and to obtaining kindred information, and who have a sufficiently deep regard for the welfare of the rising generation to be willing to give their attention to our common schools, and when thus selected we should confide to them the charge of the public school instruction of children and youth.[16]

In continuing with its policy of trying to maintain uniformity, the Board, in March of 1841, adopted Worcester's A Second Book for Reading, and A Fourth Book for Reading; Worcester's Elementary Dictionary; Bailey's Algebra, and the Pictorial Spelling Book. Worcester's Primer had met the criteria and the expectations of the Board; therefore, the adoption of the second, third, and fourth readers was unanimous. Worcester's readers had storylines that were familiar to children and, therefore, easy for them to follow and understand. The vocabulary words were also familiar and thus manageable. The following passage from Worcester's A Second Book for Reading and Spelling is an example of the type of stories and concepts presented in this reader.

MR. WOOD AND CHARLES BELL

One day, when Mr. Wood took a walk to the end of the

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[16]Historical Sketches of the Public School System of the City of Chicago (Chicago: Twenty-Fifth Annual Report of the Board of Education of the City of Chicago, 1816-1878), 13-14.

> town, he saw Charles Bell, who lives with his Aunt Jane, hard at work in his aunt's garden.
>
> "I think you are warm, Charles," said Mr. Wood. Charles held up his head, and made a bow, and said--"Yes, sir; my aunt says, corn is so scarce, and bread so dear, that I must work, or else she cannot keep me." "You seem to be a nice boy," said Mr. Wood; "will you come and live with me? I will give you as much bread as you want, and will not make you work so hard."[17]

The Worcester reader maintained the moral theme of the books and stories of this period, which aided in making it a choice of the Board.

In addition to addressing the problems of teaching methods and materials, the Board of Education rearranged the school year to provide the maximum amount of instruction time.

In April, the school year was changed to begin on the first Monday in January, with the year divided into four quarters with each quarter consisting of twelve weeks each. One week of vacation followed the end of each quarter. The school week was from Monday to Saturday, with the school day beginning at 9 a.m. and continuing until 12 noon and the afternoon session from 1:30 p.m. to 4:30 p.m. On Saturday the school day ended at 12 noon. A few minutes each day was allowed for recess. The constitutionality of Bible reading was not an issue, as the reading of the Scriptures was the very first exercise of each school day. The teacher would read a verse, followed by the student reading subsequent

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[17]Clifford Johnson, Old-Time Schools and Schoolbooks (New York: Dover Publication, Inc., 1963), 244.

verses.[18]

Although in 1842 property was given to the Board of Inspectors for the purpose of erecting schools, it was not until 1845 that Chicago's first permanent school building was constructed. This was accomplished through the driving efforts of Ira Miltimore, chairman of the Committee on Schools. He proposed that a permanent brick schoolhouse, 60 x 80 feet and two stories high, be constructed. The school was referred to as "Miltimore's Folly" because the total cost of construction was $7,523.42, which, at that time, was considered an exorbitant amount of money to spend on a school. The mayor, August Garrent, along with many others, felt the size of the building exceeded the needs of the student population. He referred to the building as the "Big School-House," and suggested that it be turned into an insane asylum into which those responsible for building it be incarcerated; or that the building be sold. The school, located on Madison Street, was known as School No. 1, until 1858 when it was renamed the Dearborn School. It remained in use until June 1871. The first principal of Dearborn School was Austin D. Sturtevant. Perkins Bass was principal from February 1855 to May 1856; Albert Sabin, from November 1863 to July 1865; Daniel Wentworth, from September 1866 to

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[18]Historical Sketches of the Public School System of the City of Chicago (Chicago: Twenty-Fifth Annual Report of the Board of Education of the City of Chicago, 1816-1878), 14.

July 1867; Leslie Lewis, from September 1867 to October 1869; and Albert P. Burbank, from March 1870 to July 1871. With the exception of Mr. Sturtevant, these principals were honored by having other Chicago public schools named after them in later years.[19]

By the year 1853, Chicago's population had grown to 60,000. The need for a superintendent was acute. On November 28, 1953, an ordinance, which created the Office of Superintendent of Public Schools, was passed by the Common Council. The duties of the superintendent included acting as secretary at the meetings of the Board of Inspectors, visiting all the schools as often as his schedule would allow, attending all meetings of the Board of Inspectors, and monitoring teachers and students. The superintendent's salary was originally set at one thousand dollars per year, but in 1854, the ordinance was amended, allowing the Board of Inspectors to establish the salary, which was not to exceed $1,500 per year.

On December 30, 1853, John D. Philbrick, principal of the State Normal School of New Britain, Connecticut, was selected by the Board of Inspectors to be Chicago's first superintendent at an annual salary of $1,500. However, Mr. Philbrick declined the offer. Therefore, John C. Dore, who was the principal of the Boylston Grammar School of Boston, Massachusetts, was elected. He accepted the offer and

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[19]Ibid., 18.

thereby became the first superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools. At the time of his appointment, there were some 3,000 students and 35 teachers in the system.[20]

Upon assuming the duties of the Office of Superintendent in June 1854, Mr. Dore, in an attempt to assess the situation and condition of the schools and the students, launched an examination of all the students in all schools from the primary grades through the grammar grades. To his dismay, he discovered that the schools were totally disorganized; disorganized to the point that in some schools many students attended one grade in the morning and an entirely different grade in the afternoon session. Attendance records were non-existent--neither the teachers nor the principal knew which students actually attended the school. The schools contained assembly rooms and recitation rooms. Much time was wasted as students traveled between the two; very little instruction was taking place.

Under Mr. Dore's supervision, some order and organiztion were introduced. The students were grouped into apropriate classes and the promotion procedures were changed; promotions were held on a regular basis, rather than at the discretion of the principal. The teachers were directed to maintain a student class book as well as keep an accurate record of the students' attendance and conduct.

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[20]John Howatt, Notes on the First Hundred Years of Chicago (Chicago: 1940), 10.

Mr. Dore also initiated the organization of an institute that met on a monthly basis, and he made appropriations available for janitorial services instead of requiring the students to clean as had been the previous policy.

The year 1857 saw a change from seven Board of School Inspectors of Chicago to fifteen, and the name was changed from the Board of Inspectors to the Board of Education.[21]

This short, chronological history gives an indication of the efforts that were put forth in order to have some type of formal educational system in Chicago.

Reading in the Curriculum

As previously stated, one high priority of the early settlers was to have a literate society. In order to be considered literate, one had to be able to read; therefore, the one subject stressed and taught throughout all the colonies was reading. The reasons for making sure one could read varied from one regional colony to another, but the primary subject, universally emphasized, was reading.

In the New England colonies, which were settled primarily by the religiously-oriented Puritans, it was essential that one have reading skills in order to be able to read, interpret, and understand the Bible. In this way, one would know what to do or not do according to the teachings of the Good Book, thus insuring a path to salvation. In the

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[21]Ibid., 10.

Middle colonies, although the colonists were also religious, the need to be able to read centered around the more practical purposes of applying education to making a living. In the Southern colonies, being able to read was a sign of an educated, well-bred person. Regardless of the rationale or purpose, there was general agreement that knowing how to manage the language and how to read was an important and essential skill. Horace Mann, in his Second Annual Report to the Massachusetts State Board of Education in 1838, also addressed the importance of children being able to cope with the language as well as being able to read and understand what they had read. He stated the following:

> In this State, where the schools are open to all, an inability to spell the commonly used words in our language, justly stamps the deficient mind with the stigma of illiteracy....But, however deeply we may be mortified at the general inability of our youth to spell well, it is the lightest of all regrets, compared with the calamity of their pretending to read, what they fail to understand. Language is not merely a necessary instrument of civilization, past or prospective, but it is an indispensable condition of our existence as rational beings. We are accustomed to speak with admiration of those assemblages of things, we call the necessities, the comforts, the blessings of life, without thinking that language is a pre-necessary to them all.[22]

Regarding the importance of possessing skills, Mann makes the following analogy:

> What contrast could be more striking, than that between an unlettered savage and a philosopher,--the one imprisoned, the other privileged,--in the halls of the same library;--the one compelled by fear to gaze upon

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[22]Lawrence A. Cremin, The Republic and the School: Horace Mann on the Education of Free Men (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957), 34-35.

> the pages of a book, the other impatient for the pleasure of doing it! As the former works his reluctant eye downwards over successive lines, he sees nothing but ink and paper. Beyond, it is vacancy. But to the eye of the philosopher, the sombre pages are magically illuminated.
>
> By their light he sees other lands and times. All that filled his senses before he opened the revealing page is only an atom of the world, in which he now expatiates. He is made free of the universe....The fathers of the world come out the past and stand around him and hold converse with him, as it were, face to face.
>
> To prepare children for resembling the philosopher, rather than the savage, it is well to begin early, but it is far more important to begin right....The school is the place to form a habit of observing distinctions between words and phrases, and of adjusting the language used to various extents of meaning.[23]

The architects of the instructional programs in Chicago's public schools, whether or not they were familiar with Mann's views, were in agreement that reading was a prominent requirement. Since its recorded history, Chicago's educational endeavors have been no exception to the beliefs of Mann. Reading has always been a pertinent subject in Chicago's school curriculum. There has never been a question about the necessity of teaching reading; the question has centered around the best methods and the best instructional materials.

In 1855, under the superintendency of John C. Dore, it appears that, for the first time, specific references to the teaching of reading occurred. In the superintendent's report, Mr. Dore stated:

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[23]Ibid., 36-37.

> The art of reading has received, within a few years past, more than ordinary attention in Public Schools generally. It is now considered an accomplishment to be able to read well. It has called attention to the importance of improvement in reading, and the competition of publishers has occasioned the compilation of many good reading books. But without oral instruction, they cannot make good readers.
>
> It is natural for children to imitate; they learn to speak and modulate their voices by imitation, and it is by this faculty that they learn to read. Much time has therefore been devoted to teaching all pupils in the Public Schools the various sounds of the letters of the English language, and their powers when combined into syllables and words, in order to secure a clear and distinct enunciation.[24]

Four years later in 1859, Superintendent William H. Wells wrote:

> Reading, the most important branch of school instruction, is generally the most imperfectly taught, especially in the Primary Schools. If we look for the seat of the difficulty, we shall probably find the principal cause in the fact that most children are first taught to call the names of a large portion of the words they read, without understanding their meaning. The remedy of the evil is suggested by the cause. Let no unmeaning words be presented to the young learner, and let no word ever be read without being understood. It is not enough that the word has a meaning, and that the child is presumed to understand what it is; the teacher should be sure that the child actually does understand every word that is read.[25]
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> In respect to the manner of giving children their first lessons in reading, a considerable diversity of practice still exists in different places. Some teachers still adhere to the system of teaching the alphabet first,

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[24]City of Chicago, Second Annual Report of the Board of Education for the Year Ending 1855 (Chicago: Board of Education, 1856), 14-15.

[25]Fifth Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Schools, Year Ending February, 1859 (Chicago: Chicago Daily Press Book and Job Print, 1859), 34.

> then short syllables, and then words and sentences. Others commence with the sounds of the letters, and then proceed to their combination in words. Others commence with words, and afterwards introduce the sounds and names of the letters of which they are composed. Others teach a few letters first, by their names. There is, however, at the resent time, a very decided tendency to what is called the word method. Wherever this method has been tried, it has been found to possess important advantages over all other systems, and it is safe to predict that it will soon find its way into all the best elementary schools of the country.[26]

Mr. Wells also stressed the importance of children being exposed to and introduced to familiar and relevant objects so that their reading habits would be as natural as possible. He advocated "concreteness" when teaching children how to read, as opposed to the abstract, which is why he was a strong supporter of the word method of teaching children how to read.

> Words have meaning; letters have none. Words are as easily learned as letters, and they naturally precede letters. It is hoped that the time is not distant when the philosophy of education will be better understood, and when all teachers will learn that it is safe to follow nature in our efforts to cultivate the minds of children. Who would think of teaching a child the different parts of which a tree is composed, before he has learned to distinguish the tree itself?[27]

Mr. Wells had some definite ideas about the methods of teaching letters in isolation.

> The exact point at which the names of the letters are to be introduced, is not a matter of much importance, so that we preserve the main features of the system unimpaired. The natural order of the different steps is manifestly the following: first, the object itself is presented to the senses; next, the name of the object is

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[26]Ibid., 35-36.

[27]Ibid., 36-37.

> pronounced and learned. As the spoken word consists of sounds, the next step in order is to analyze the sounds and utter them separately. After this, the names of the letters are to be learned.
>
> If any teachers prefer to teach the names of the letters as fast as they occur in the words learned, no harm can result from such a course. But the sounds of the letters, which are the real elements of all spoken words, should by all means be learned as early as the names.[28]

This method of teaching reading advocated by Wells was based on Pestalozzi's educational philosophy of teaching children "through sense perception, reasoning, and the use of real objects."[29] Pestalozzi, like Rousseau before him, rejected the method of teaching only words and facts, which had been the practice up to the end of the eighteenth century. The Pestalozzian method involved merging or connecting the educational process with the natural development of the child. He believed that it was the duty of the teacher to know or "to discover these laws of development and to assist nature in securing a natural, symmetrical, and harmonious development of all the faculties of the child." In addition, Pestalozzi felt that "real education must develop the child as a whole--mentally, physically, morally"--and he called for "the training of the head and the hand and the heart." According to his philosophy, learning should be mostly analytical and the introduction of real objects and

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[28]Ibid.

[29]Rudolf Printner, John J. Ryan, Paul V. West, Adolph W. Aleck, Lester D. Crow, and Samuel Smith, Educational Psychology (New York: Barnes & Noble, Inc., 1959), 4.

ideas should come before the teaching of symbols and words.[30]

Therefore, the previous method of teaching the alphabet first by showing the letters and having their names repeated without regard to the sounds they represent was considered obsolete and unproductive.

Superintendent Wells also felt that correct articulation was essential to good reading skills. He stated:

> Another important direction to be observed in teaching the elements of reading is to give constant and special attention to articulation. There can be no good reading without correctness of articulation; and it is far easier to form good habits at first than to correct bad ones at a later period.[31]

Reading was considered best taught as a teacher-directed activity, whereby the presence of the teacher was always a requirement. Mr. Wells, therefore, admonishes the teachers:

> It can hardly be necessary to say that while a class is engaged in reading, it should receive the undivided attention of the teacher. If the teacher is necessarily called away, by all means suspend the exercise. It is far better to omit a lesson altogether, than to leave the pupils to read by themselves. The voice of the teacher should be frequently heard in every reading exercise as an example for the scholars to imitate. It is by imitation that children learn to talk, and their skill and accuracy in reading will depend mainly upon the character of the models which are brought before them. A child may make a dozen trials in reading a

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[30]Ellwood P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States: A Study and Interpretation of American Educational History (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934), 348.

[31]Fifth Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Schools, for the Year Ending February 1859 (Chicago: Board of Education, 1859), 37.

sentence, and not only fail every time, but read it worse and worse, if he does not hear it read correctly by the teacher or by some member of the class.[32]

This method of reading was undoubtedly successful because Superintendent Wells expanded it from the primary grades to include all of the other grades. In his "General Directions for All the Grades," his instructions were:

1. Reading--Teachers should adhere rigidly to the rule that no reading lesson is to be left till the pupils understand the meaning of every word contained in it, and are able to express that meaning in their own language. It is highly important that pupils should not only understand the meaning of words when taken by themselves, but that they should also understand their meaning and use in connection with other words.

   While examples are constantly occurring in which pupils do not read "with understanding," there is also an opposite fault that is equally to be shunned. Some teachers seem to suppose that the principal object of a school exercise in reading, is to understand the meaning of the piece read. This is a mistake. The principal object is to read the piece so as to express that meaning. The sense of the piece must be studied then, not in this case as an end, but as a means to enable the pupil to execute the reading successfully. This being the case, it is obviously a great fault to spend half or three-fourths of the hour allotted to reading lesson, in discussing the meaning of words and the general sense of the passages read.[33]

As with the primary grades, Mr. Wells reminded the teachers of the importance of them being a role model for oral reading. He also emphasized that punctuation marks,

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[32]Ibid., 39-40.

[33]Board of Education of the City of Chicago, First Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Schools of the City of Chicago (Chicago: Democrat Book and Job Office, 45 LaSalle Street, 1854), 34.

capital letters, italics, and other markings used in the reading lessons should be learned as they occur in the reading lessons.

During these early years, there seemed to be contrasting or variant opinions as to what constituted a good program of reading instruction. As it has often been stated, "the more things change, the more they remain the same." For example, George G. Emerson of Boston, who was referred to as "one of the most eminent educators of the country," summarized what he considered the qualifications of a good reader. They were:

1. A fullness of voice which shall enable him to fill, without apparent effort, the room occupied by the class.

2. Perfect distinctness of articulation, giving complete expression to every vocal element, and letting the sound of each word fall clearly upon the ear of the hearer, especially at the end of every sentence.

3. Correct pronunciation, with that roundness and fullness of enunciation and sweetness and mellowness of tone, which only can satisfy and charm the ear and reach the heart.

4. Just emphasis, clearly marked, but not overstrained.

5. He must read naturally and with spirit, avoiding all affectation and mannerism, and keeping, at the same time, clear of the lifeless monotony common in schools, and of the excess of emphasis which so often characterizes poor declamation.

6. In the reading of poetry, his tones must be those of unaffected emotion free at once from the tameness of prose and from the too measured cadence of verse.[34]

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[34]Department of Public Instruction, City of Chicago, Tenth Annual Report of the Board of Education for the Year Ending December 31, 1863 (Chicago: Chicago Times Book and Job Printing House, 1864), 18.

Judging from this excerpt, Mr. Emerson's connotation of reading evolved around the modulation of voice expression and diction. Nothing was said about specific skills of comprehension or word recognition. However, the need for an adequate reading program and methods by which to best teach reading was uppermost in the Board's mind. As Superintendent Wells reiterated:

> Reading--there is no branch of instruction which demands more constant and watchful attention than reading. To say that reading is more imperfectly taught than any other branch, would, I presume, be saying what is generally true of other cities, as well as our own. I cannot refrain from saying that in more than one-half of the schools, including the High School, we have not yet attained a degree of excellence with which we ought be satisfied. We need some way, to awaken a fresh interest in this subject, and to enlist a special effort on the part of the teachers to advance both themselves and their pupils in this important art.[35]

This statement was written in 1863; we need only to change the date to 1989 to make it relevant. The foundations of reading instruction in the Chicago Public Schools had been established. From the inception of the first private school in 1816 to the establishment of the first public school in 1832, the teaching of reading was a high priority. The pertinent problem was finding the most effective methods and materials for teaching it. Superintendent Wells initiated, what was then, some innovative ideas in the instructional methods of teaching reading. He realized, however, that he had not found the answer, nor solved the problem of how best

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[35]Ibid., 19.

to teach reading. This problem was not unique only to Wells or the Chicago schools. Other educators in other cities were challenged with the same or similar problems, problems that were much larger in scope than even those in Chicago. Chapter two will explore some of these problems and their solutions.

CHAPTER II

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE COMMON SCHOOL MOVEMENT: 1820-1860

Background

It would be difficult, and perhaps unjustifiable, to attempt any analysis of the reading program in the Chicago Public Schools first, without prefacing this process with an examination of the variables that impact on a school system as a whole, and second, without looking at the individual educational programs within that school system. The social, cultural, political, and economic times and conditions of a town, city, state, or nation determine the type and quality of education its citizens will receive. This is evidenced in chapter one in the discussion of the early regional colonies and how the location of these colonies, as well as other elemental factors, were both determinates and resultants of the variety of educational philosophies, practices, and implementations.

The most significant occurrence in education took place in the New England states between 1820 and 1860 with the establishment of common schools. During this period, America was still in its infancy; still crawling through the various stages of trying to grow and develop into a strong and independent nation. Its leaders had different

reach the goal of maturity. These men seemingly agreed that education was the appropriate vehicle to use as a means of getting them to this level, but again there were problems with direction. The declaration of new found independence by the young states was accompanied by new directions in classroom instruction and educational goals, especially in reading. The focus of the reading content was changed from that of a religious nature to that of the following functions:

> to purify the American language
>
> to develop loyalty to the new nation, its traditions and institutions, its occupations and resources
>
> to include the high ideals of virtue and moral behavior which were considered so necessary a part of the general program of building good citizenship.[1]

The shift of the focus in reading content from that of a secular one to a nationalistic theme also resulted in a change in the methods used to teach reading during this period. Instruction in reading stressed the rules and exercises in correct pronunciation and enunciation; the purpose for stressing these areas was to address the diversity of the various dialects and to promote a greater unity in the American language.

Four prominent statesmen, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Rush, Benjamin Franklin, and Noah Webster, had different

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[1]Nila B. Smith, American Reading Instruction (New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1934), 337.

ideas as to the approach that should be taken regarding education. Jefferson wanted education to promote citizenship; he firmly believed that the only way for the states to maintain their independence was through education, and education with the "right" textbooks. He stated:

> There is one branch in which we are the best judges, in which heresies may be taught, of so interesting a character to our State, and to the United States, as to make it a duty in us to lay down the principles, which are to be taught. It is that of government....It is our duty to guard against the dissemination of such (Federalist) principles among our youth, and the diffusion of that poison, by a previous prescription of the texts to be followed in their discourses.[2]

Jefferson also believed in the necessity of having a literate citizenry in order to preserve the freedoms the colonists had won. He proposed an education bill, which contained three levels of education that would include all classes of the people. These were:

1. Elementary schools for all children generally, rich and poor.

2. Colleges for a middle degree of instruction, calculated for the common purposes of life, and such as would be desirable for all who were in easy circumstances.

3. An ultimate grade for teaching the sciences generally, and in their highest degree.

> The first bill proposed to lay off every county into Hundreds or Wards, of a proper size and population for a school, in which reading, writing, and common arithmetic should be taught...
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> The second bill proposed to amend the constitution of

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[2]David B. Tyack, ed., Turning Points in American Educational History (Waltham, Massachusetts: Blaisdell Publishing Company, 1967), 91.

> William & Mary College, to enlarge its sphere of science, and to make it in fact an University. The third was for the establishment of a library.[3]

Benjamin Rush, like Webster and Jefferson, believed that education must be "systematic, useful, and uniformly republican in aim. The only social agency capable of creating such an educational system was the government, whether state or national." Rush declared:

> This must be done, if we expect them to perform their parts properly in the great machine of the government of the state. That the republic is sophisticated with monarchy or aristocracy that does not revolve upon the wills of the people, and these must be fitted to each other by means of education before they can be made to produce with regularity and unison in government.[4]

Benjamin Franklin felt that a utilitarian or practical education would be more beneficial. Noah Webster felt very strongly about nationalism and its essential role in the growth of the young nation. He had many supporters as is evidenced by the titles of some of the more widely used books such as: The American Spelling Book, An American Selection of Lessons in Reading and Speaking, The Columbian Orator, The American Preceptor, American Popular Reader, Class Book of American Literature, A History of the American Revolution, National Preceptor, and The American Manual.[5] Webster, who authored the most popular readers of this pe-

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[3]Ibid., 117-18.

[4]Ibid., 86-87.

[5]Nila B. Smith, American Reading Instruction (New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1934), 37.

riod, campaigned for an "Association of American Patriots," whose purpose would be to form a "National Character." He wrote an essay titled "On the Education of Youth in America" whereby he expressed the following observations:

> Our national character is not yet formed; and it is an object of vast magnitude that systems of Education should be adopted and pursued, which may not only diffuse a knowledge of the sciences, but may implant in the minds of American youth, the principles of virtue and of liberty; and inspire them with just and liberal ideas of government, and with an inviolable attachment to their own country.[6]

Webster used his textbooks as the vehicle toward nationalism. His book An American Selection of Lessons in Reading and Speaking demonstrates how he made use of his materials as a means of furthering his ideals of nationalism:

> The design of the Third Part of the Grammatical Institute is to furnish Scholars with a variety of exercises for Reading sand Spelling. Colleges and academies are already supplied with excellent collections for this purpose....But none of these, however judicious the selection, is calculated particularly for the American Schools. The essays reflect distant nations and ages, or contain general ideas of morality. In America it will be useful to furnish schools with additional essays containing history, geography and transactions of the United States. Information on these subjects is necessary for youth, both in forming habits and improving their minds. A love of country, and an acquaintance with its true state are indispensable. They should be acquired early in life.
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> In the following works, I have undertaken to make such a collection of essays as should form the morals as well as improve the knowledge of youth. In choice of pieces, I have been attentive to the political interests of America. I consider it as a capital fault in all our

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[6]David B. Tyack, ed., Turning Points in American Educational History (Waltham, Massachusetts: Blaisdell Publishing Company, 1967), 86.

> schools, that the books generally used, contain subjects wholly uninteresting to our youth; while the writings which marked the revolution, which are perhaps not inferior to Cicero and Demosthenes and which are calculated to impress interesting truths upon youthful minds, lie neglected and forgotten. Several of these masterly addresses of Congress written at the commencement of the late revolution contain such noble sentiments of liberty and patriotism, that I cannot help wishing to transmute them into the breasts of the rising generation.[7]

Regardless of the varying positions and the different philosophies of these four men, there appeared to be one constant, that the American common school movement purposed to cultivate citizenship and a sense of nationalistic loyalty to the young country.[8]

Several New England states, namely Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Hampshire, led the charge in planting the seeds of the common school. The Middle Atlantic states, steeped in the strong tradition of religious tenets and committed to the support of private and parochial schools, proceeded at a slower pace in initiating publicly supported schools. However, this does not mean that attempts at educating the underprivileged were not made.

The Lancasterian method of teaching the catechism and reading was widely used in the Middle Atlantic states. The Lancasterian monitorial system of instruction originated in

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[7]Nila B. Smith, American Reading Instruction (New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1934), 49.

[8]Gerald L. Gutek, Education in the United States: An Historical Perspective (New Jersey: Prentice Hall Publishing Company, 1986), 83-86.

England and was named after its founder Joseph Lancaster. The characteristic features of the Lancasterian system was the instruction of large numbers of students, ranging from 200 to 1000, in one room with the aid of monitors. The students were usually sorted by age or size and assigned to rows; each row was then managed by a monitor, who was one of the smarter students and the "key to the entire system." The teacher would first teach the monitors the reading lesson from a printed card; then the monitors would take their assigned rows of students to "stations" located around the walls of the classroom that had the lessons on suspended charts and would then teach the students what had just been taught to them. Each monitor was generally assigned ten students. By using this system, many students could be instructed at the same time with only one teacher. The Lancasterian system was first used for the teaching of reading and the catechism only, but was extended to instruction in spelling and arithmetic and later to other subjects.[9] Due to the economic and social climate in the Southern states, common schools were not established until after the Civil War, during the Reconstruction Period.[10]

Every historic movement of any importance has its advo-

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[9]Ellwood P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States: A Study and Interpretation of American Educational History (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934), 128-32.

[10]Gerald L. Gutek, Education in the United States: An Historical Perspective (New Jersey: Prentice Hall Publishing Company, 1986), 83.

cates, its "movers and shakers" who exert or impose their influence, ideologies, and philosophies on the masses. The common school movement was no exception. One would be remiss to discuss common schools and not include the names of Horace Mann and Henry Barnard. The common schools had many supporters and advocates, but Mann was considered the most eminent statesman of the movement. It was primarily through his efforts that the American public school system eventually evolved.

Born in Massachusetts in 1796, Mann's careers included that of a lawyer, a politician, and an educator. It was through his position as secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education that he was able to lay the foundation of a common school education. During Mann's tenure from 1837 to 1848, Massachusetts became the model for school establishment, organization, and administration. He founded and edited the Common School Journal between the years of 1839 and 1853. In this journal he stressed and publicized the necessity for common schools and the need to work for the improvement of public education. He also wrote twelve annual reports, which are today still considered to be classic statements of public school philosophy. In his Second Report, Mann shares his views on reading, what it is, and how it should be taught. On the subject of how to motivate children to want to read, he offers the following advice:

> Perhaps the best way of inspiring a young child with a desire of learning to read is, to read to him, with

> proper intervals, some interesting story, perfectly intelligible, yet as full of suggestion as of communication; for the pleasure of discovering is always greater than that of perceiving. Care should be taken, however, to leave off, before the ardor of curiosity cools. He should go away longing, not loathing. After the appetite has become keen,--and nature supplies the zest,--the child can be made to understand how he can procure this enjoyment of himself. The motive of affection also may properly be appealed to, that is, a request to learn in order to please the teacher; but this should never be pressed so far as to jeopardize its existence, for it is a feeling more precious than all knowledge.[11]

Regarding what reading is, Mann explains:

> Reading is divisible into two parts. It consists of the mechanical and the mental. The mechanical part is the utterance of the articulate sounds of a language, on inspecting its written or printed signs. It is called mechanical, because the operation closely resembles that of a machine, which may receive the best of materials and run through a thousand parcels of them every year;--the machine itself remaining just as bare and naked at the end of the year, as it was at the beginning. On the other hand, one portion of the mental part of reading consists in a reproduction in the mind of the reader of whatever was in the mind of the author; so that whether the author describes atoms or worlds, narrates the history of individuals or nations, kindles into sublimity, or melts in pathos,--whatever was in the author's mind starts into sudden existence in the reader's mind, as nearly as their different mental constitutions will allow....With the mental part, then reading becomes the noblest instrument of wisdom; without it, it is the most despicable part of folly and worthlessness. Beforehand, it would seem quite as incredible, that any person should compel children to go through with the barren forms of reading, without ideas; as to make them perform all the motions of eating, without food. The body would not dwindle under the latter, more certainly, than the mind under the former.[12]

Although Mann expressed these ideas in 1838, they are as applicable to the teaching of reading today as they were

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[11]Lawrence A. Cremin, The Republic and the School: Horace Mann on the Education of Free Men (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957), 39.

[12]Ibid., 42-43.

then.

Horace Mann organized teachers' conventions and institutes; he was also instrumental in the organization of the first public normal school in the United States, which was located in Lexington, Massachusetts and served as a model for future teacher training institutions. The cornerstone of Mann's philosophy was that good teachers, well prepared in their subject matter and the art of teaching, were key factors to the success and survival of the common school.

In regard to the students, Mann felt education should prepare them to be responsible citizens in a republican society. He visualized the common school as an integrating agent whereby all children of various class backgrounds and religious beliefs would be brought together under one umbrella of learning. He believed the curriculum of the common school should consist of those elementary skills and subjects essential to a successful and useful life. Those subjects included reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, history, and geography. These accomplishments and principles give insight as to why Horace Mann has often been referred to as the "father of the common school movement" in the United States.[13]

Henry Barnard, born some fifteen years after Mann, was

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[13]Gerald L. Gutek, Education in the United States: An Historical Perspective (New Jersey: Prentice Hall Publishing Company, 1986), 94-97.

Mann's counterpart in Connecticut. Barnard was secretary of the Connecticut State Board of Education from 1838 to 1842. In addition to this position, he was the state commissioner of public schools in Rhode Island from 1845 to 1849, the chancellor of the University of Wisconsin (1858-1860), and the United States commissioner of education between the years of 1867 and 1870. He too waved the banner for public education through such publications as the Connecticut Common School Journal and the American Journal of Education. He acquainted teachers with the educational philosophies of prominent European educators such as Pestalozzi, Froebel, Herbert, and Fellenberg.[14]

Bernard believed in and emphasized a utilitarian curriculum that would be in concert with the industrialization of America. In addition to the functional curriculum, he stressed love of country, traditions, heritage, heroes, good health, and wholesome values. However in his first annual secretary's report to the Connecticut Board of Common School Commissioners in 1838, Barnard reminded the teachers that reading, writing, and arithmetic were the primary branches of learning that should not be neglected. He considered English as the most important subject, as it included spelling, reading, speaking, grammar, and composition. He also advocated the modern instructional concept that spelling should be taught in an integrative fashion with

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[14]Ibid., 98.

reading and writing, as opposed to the method of teaching it in isolation through repetitious exercises. Using arithmetic in practical and relevant ways was also stressed by him. Bernard like Mann, realized the interdependence of adequate teacher training and preparation as the key to the survival and growth of common schools. He felt that teachers were an integral part of the education process; in one of his lectures, "The Teacher's Proper Place," Barnard stated:

> The teacher who enters intelligently upon his work of cultivating the minds entrusted to his care, knows that his chief duty is to cherish the spontaneous action of their powers, and to make them intelligent and voluntary co-workers in their own development.[15]

Barnard was also cognizant of the ineffective instructional methods being employed by untrained teachers. He addressed this problem in his lecture "The Teacher's Aim in Instruction":

> Few teachers, at the present day, regard knowledge as the great end of intellectual education. Few are now unwilling to admit that the chief aim of their daily endeavors, as instructors and educators, should be to train, develop, and discipline the powers by which knowledge is acquired, rather than to attempt the immediate accumulation of knowledge itself. In practice, however, and, more particularly, in the case of young teachers, and of those who follow the occupation as a transient one, and not as the vocation of a lifetime, the eagerness for definite and apparent results, or even showy acquirements, too often induces the instructor to confine his attention to the mere mechanism of specific processes,--to the committing to memory, and the repetition of a set task, with or without the aid of explanation. This course he knows will nominally secure a single point in practice or effect. He thinks, perhaps, that although not fully

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[15]Henry Barnard, Education, the School, and the Teacher in American Literature (Hartford: Brown and Gross), 1876 14.

> understood or appreciated now, it will certainly benefit the mind of his pupil at some future day, when his mind is more mature. Hence, we still have, in our school routine, too much of mere rule and repetition, detached fact and specific direction, the lesson of the hour and the business of the day, and too little of the searching interrogation, close observation, reflective thought, and penetrating investigation, by which alone the mind can be trained to the acquisition of useful knowledge, or the attainment of valuable truth.[16]

In addition to advocating for improved teacher training and awareness, barnard also pushed for the establishment of normal schools and better pay for teachers.[17]

The common school movement was not embraced by everyone; there were opponents. Educators representing some of the private schools viewed the common schools as a threat to their continued existence. These educators feared schools supported by public taxes would monopolize education in america. They were also concerned that academic standards would be lowered and the curriculum weakened in order to accommodate all students. Many politicians were in opposition to the publicly tax-supported schools. They felt it unfair to be required to support education for someone else's children. Those who believed in limited government also opposed the movement; they feared the creation of a powerful government network that could use its influence for

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[16]Ibid., 9-10.

[17]Gerald L. Gutek, Education in the United States: An Historical Perspective (New Jersey: Prentice Hall Publishing Company, 1986), 98-99.

the indoctrination of young minds. Then there were those who worried about the preservation of their ethnicity, language, and religious beliefs. They were apprehensive about the common schools creating a common language, its own set of moral rules, and even, perhaps, its own type of religion. Roman Catholics, especially, were concerned with the latter; they had great fears that the common schools would intentionaly or unintentionally convert their children to Protestantism.[18] It will become obvious later in this dissertation that many of these fears were well founded.

Social, Cultural, Political, and Economic Trends

In the United States, during the latter part of the eighteenth century and the early part of the nineteenth century, several variables such as the industrial revolution, the exodus from rural areas to the cities, and the extensive immigration from Europe to America contributed to the demand for a more and better educated populace; and perhaps gave a greater impetus to the common school movement.

The industrial revolution and the exodus from the farms were related in that the growth of industrialism, with the promise of a steady and higher income, lured many from the rural areas to the cities with hopes of making money and thereby improving and upgrading their living conditions. As

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[18]Ibid., 101-102.

the population of the cities increased, so did the population of children. It was obvious that a more efficient way of educating large numbers of children effectively was needed. In addition, the "new technology" required that people be able to read and understand how the machinery worked, what gears to push or pull, and other aspects of jobs that required entirely different skills than had been needed on the farm.

The great immigration from Europe and the felt need of some patriots to "Americanize" all foreigners also provided groundwork for the establishment of the common school movement. Therefore, while teaching the basic skills of reading and writing to the migrants from the rural areas and to the immigrants from Europe, what better way and place to indoctrinate masses of people than in the schools? Even today, the schools are used as the implement by which various doctrines, philosophies, and beliefs are taught. With the advent of the aforementioned variables came the realization that the country was entering into yet another phase in its phenominal development.

Industrialization brought many changes, both favorable and unfavorable. On the positive side, the gross national product increased, which resulted in economic growth for the country. On the negative side, perplexing social and economic problems were compounded by the dislocation and resettlement of an immense number of people in a disorderly

and chaotic manner.[19] The social upheaval culminated in several problems and trends:

1. The increasing urban population included large numbers of children, collected in central locations, who required schooling.

2. The factories, mills, and enterprises of an industrialization and modernizing society needed educated managers and trained workers.

3. The populations of the northern states became increasingly heterogeneous in terms of ethnicity and language as large numbers of non-English-speaking immigrants settled them.

4. In certain areas of the country, particularly in the large northeastern cities, Protestant domination was challenged by a growing Roman Catholic population.[20]

Because of the common school movement, state systems of tax-supported, locally-controlled elementary schools were established throughout the United States. These schools not only were open and available to the students, but also were accessible to all the people who lived in the area or district. Basic instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, history, and geography were offered. These were considered core subjects--subjects that would provide the type of education the new society demanded. As Gutek stated:

> Common schooling was an effort to modernize and make more efficient the various patterns of American elementary education. It was an effort to create new educational structures of an institutional nature to meet the needs of a modernizing society. As a period, the establishing of common schools created greater educational opportunities for lower socioeconomic classes. Common

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[19]Ibid., 87.

[20]Ibid. 87-88.

> schools were, in this instance, conduits of upward social and economic mobility.[21]

Therefore, it would appear that common or public schools served as the mentor for the common citizen, that the "yellow brick road of learning" awaited anyone who wished to travel it, and that one had only to stroll down the road into the opened door of educational opportunities. Common schools were supposed to "create greater educational opportunities for lower socioeconomic classes." Common schools were to serve as "conduits of upward social and economic mobility." One could interpret this to mean that both the curriculum and instructional materials would contribute to meeting the needs of all students, regardless of their nationality, socioeconomic background, race, or religion. It could also be interpreted to mean that these needs would be met without violating or encroaching upon the rights, values, ethnic pride, or religious convictions of others. However, these interpretations or assumptions were apparently erroneous. On the topic of the common schools, one historian concluded:

> While common schools were agencies of upward social and economic mobility, they were also instruments of social control over the lower socioeconomic classes by dominant English-speaking, upper-class Protestants. Social control, in this context, meant imposing, by institutional education, the language, beliefs, and values of the dominant group on outsiders, especially on the non-English-speaking immigrants. Common schools were expected to create such conformity in Americam life by imposing the language and ideological outlook of the dominant group. For example, by using English as the medium of instruc-

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[21]Ibid.

> tion the common schools were expected to create an English-speaking citizenry; by cultivating a general value orientation based on Protestant Christianity, the common schools were expected to create a general American ethic. As such, the common schools were to be agencies of Americanization which meant the imposition of prescribed values on an increasingly heterogeneous multicultural population.[22]

As previously stated, the fears that some opponents had concerning the influence and effect of common schools on their individual freedoms and way of living had a solid foundation. Not only were the common schools to be agencies of Americanization, but so were the instructional materials used in the schools. The desire to be totally independent of England's influence resulted in the development of "American texts for American schools." Prior to the Revolutionary War, English textbooks had been used in the colonial schools. One of the most widely used was the book An New Guide to the English Tongue written by an English schoolmaster, Thomas Dilworth. Dilworth's Guide consisted of "selected lists of words with rules for their pronunciation, a short treatise on grammar, a collection of fables with illustrations for reading, some moral selections, and forms of prayer for children."[23] This book was replaced by books such as Webster's "blue-backed" American Spelling Book,

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[22]Ibid., 87-88.

[23]Ellwood P. Cubberley, ed., Public Education in the United States: A Study and Interpretation of American Educational History (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934), 46-47.

which was organized in much the same way as Dilworth's book, but was "thoroughly American in content and character." Webster's book contained a standardized pronunciation. The English prayers were replaced with moral reading lessons, and American historical and geographical names replaced similar English names that were used in Dilworth.[24] In addition, Webster wrote the first American English Grammar, which is also known as Webster's Second Part, and is thusly described:

> A grammatical Institute of the English Language; comprising an Easy, Concise, and Systematic Method of Education. Designed for the use of English schools in America. In three parts. Part Second, Containing a plain and Comprehensive Grammar, grounded on the true Principles and Idioms of the Language.[25]

There were many other textbooks developed and published that were strictly American oriented and which dictated what would be taught and how it would be taught. This confirmed the fears that some opponents of the common school movement had concerning the influence and effect of common schools on their individual freedoms.

The Curriculum of the Common Schools--Reading Texts

Core or primary subjects were an integral component of the common school curriculum. These basic subjects were reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic. Some school districts had instruction in American history, geography,

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[24]Ibid., 290.

[25]Ibid., 296.

health, and music, but the previously mentioned basic subjects were the ones taught and stressed in both rural and urban schools. Although a somewhat standard curriculum existed, there were no standardized textbooks to aid in the implementation of the curriculum. Rural schools especially suffered from not having uniform textbooks for the different subjects. Students brought whatever books were available from home. This of course resulted in a "hodge podge" of various and sundry books being used for instruction. Another outcome of this textbook shortage was what is now referred to as "individualized instruction." A teacher with as many different books as he or she had students found it very difficult to have whole group instruction. An additional complication in the rural schools was the problem of space. These rural schools often consisted of one room where all grades and ages were taught by a single teacher.

The teachers in rural schools were, more often than not, Normal-trained teachers, which meant that they were primarily trained to address the needs of city children. Most of them knew or understood very little about rural life and the concepts that surrounded it. Even when the textbooks were made uniform, they represented ideals and concepts that were city-oriented, rather than rural. The needs of the rural students were greatly neglected.[26] This exist-

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[26]Ibid., 719.

ing condition had to have an effect on the teaching of reading, as the students in the rural schools had little to which they could relate while trying to learn the fundamental reading skills.

In the larger urban districts the situation was different. Simply put, the sheer numbers of students in a city school dictated a more efficient implementation of the curriculum. In urban school districts the students were grouped into grade levels according to their ages. This system of grouping evolved into our conventional eight grades at the elementary level. Rural districts later patterned their schools after this model. The urban school districts also addressed the problem of the multiplicity of textbooks used in a classroom. Business-conscious publishing companies developed textbooks appropriate for use in the various grades and subject areas as well as in instruction.

In fact, teachers instructions were centered around particular textbook series, which usually were the reading series. The graded school system in American schools was the result of the influence of the Pestalozzian Schools in Germany, whereby the children were "divided according to age and attainments, and a single teacher had charge only of a single class." This system required specific books for specific grade levels; therefore, the need was apparent for reading books that covered various skills at different levels. Between the years of 1840 and 1860, graded reading

series were published by Worcester, Swan, Russel, Town, McGuffey, and others.[27] During this period the most popular and widely used reading series were the McGuffey readers. These readers espoused common and moral values founded primarily in the Protestant religion. The following excerpts are examples of selections from McGuffey's Eclectic Primer. These passages demonstrate the type of moral lessons and religious doctrines emphasized.

> The girls and boys all love Miss May; she is so kind to them. Miss May tells them there is a rule that she wants them to keep. It is, "Do to each one as you would like each one to do to you." This is a good rule, and all boys and girls should keep it.[28]

The primary purpose of the lesson was supposedly to teach reading. Vocabulary words such as Miss, wants, would, tells, rule, keep, good, that, and each preceded the reading selection. As the children learned to read the passage, they also learned the golden rule and how they should treat their fellow humans. Another example:

Lesson XXXVI

Vocabulary Words

school	slates
church	child
books	when

What kind of house is this? Do you think it is a schoolhouse, or a church? It looks like a church, but I

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[27]Nila B. Smith, American Reading Instruction (New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1934), 83.

[28]William Holmes McGuffey, McGuffey's Eclectic Primer, Revised Edition (New York: American Book Company, 1896) Lesson XXXVI, 42-43.

think it is a schoolhouse. I see the boys and girls with their books and slates. When the bell rings, they will go in. A good child likes to go to school.[29]

In this lesson, along with learning new vocabulary words, the students were also reminded that good children not only go to school, but actually enjoy going. Teachers probably used this particular lesson, as well as the next one, to help eliminate, or at least discourage, truancy and tardiness.

Lesson IX-Review

Henry Black and Ned Bell live near our house. They go to school, and I see them go by each day with their books and slates.

Miss May tells the girls and boys that they should be at the schoolhouse when the bell rings. Henry is a good boy, and wants to keep the rule of the school.

Ned is not a good boy. I do not think he likes to go to school or to church.

I saw him try to kill a quail with a stone. The quail is too quick a bird for that, and Ned did not hurt it, but I know that a good child would not try to kill a bird.[30]

It would appear the popularity of the McGuffey's readers was due, in part, to the fact that not only did these readers offer conformity of instruction, but they also contributed to creating and promulgating that "American ethic" previously discussed; that ethic which was "based on Protestant Christianity and a general value orientation. The Roman Catholics and other non-Protestant religious groups

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[29]Ibid., 43-44.

[30]Ibid., 46-47.

probably had a difficult task of trying to balance their religious teachings and doctrines with that being taught in the common schools. Reading lessons such as the following were the rule rather than the exception.

Lesson VI

Vocabulary Words

God	shine	ago
small	long	from
world	moon	nut

"Do you see that tall tree? Long ago it sprang up from a small nut.

Do you know who made it do so? It was God, my child. God made the world and all things in it. He made the sun to light the day, and the moon to shine at night.

God shows that he loves us by all that he has done for us. Should we not then love Him?"[31]

Notwithstanding the strong leanings toward Protestantism, the introduction of the McGuffey's readers addressed the problem of the inconsistencies in instructional reading materials. Their use also was the foundation which gave rise to the development and publishing of basal readers at the different levels, starting with the primary grades and extending to the upper grades. The graded reading series really became popular between 1909 and 1918, when reading series such as Baker and Carpenter's Language Readers, published by the Macmillian Company; The Progressive Road to Reading, by Silver, Burdett and Company; and Story Hour

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[31]Ibid., 58-59.

Reader, published by Scott, Foresman and Company, were developed.[32] The development of these graded reading series also represented a change in the direction and purpose of teaching reading, which would affect the way reading would be taught, especially in the Chicago Public Schools. The realization that young children learned better from reading materials that contained familiar concepts, led to the inclusion of more pictures and relevant ideas in the primary readers. In the upper elementary grades, the teaching of moral lessons decreased, while the teaching of reading for information and knowledge increased. These changes came none too soon, for national and world events would require and demand a literate and informed population of citizens capable of meeting the upcoming challenges of a world war. More than ever before, the schools in Chicago would be faced with the dilemma of ensuring that every student, regardless of race, ethnic background, or language barriers, was taught to read.

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[32]Nila B. Smith, American Reading Instruction (New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1934), 141.

CHAPTER III

THE READING PROGRAM DURING THE PRE AND POST WORLD WAR II PERIOD: 1941-1960

Economic and Social Trends

On December 7, 1941, Japan's air force and naval forces executed a surprise air attack on the American fleet stationed at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii. The immediate outcome of this act was the entrance of the United States into World War II. The long range effect for America was both economic and social. Fighting a major war was extremely expensive; the federal government expended twice the amount of money during this war as it had spent during the nation's entire existence. All labor, energies, and monies were channeled into the war effort.

In 1942, the War Production Board (WPB) was established for the purpose of organizing industry for the war; the Board was responsible for the supervision and control of the production of goods needed for the armed forces. If materials, equipment, or machinery were considered as nonessential to the war cause, the manufacturing of such articles was limited. New factories and plants were constructed; the War Food Administration was established to oversee the agricultural production of the nation's farms. Taxes, including

individual income taxes, were increased. The money obtained from this increase was used to pay for about 40 percent of government spending. War bonds were used to pay the remaining 60 percent through a borrowing system.

This financial arrangement resulted in the expansion of the national debt which amounted to approximately 280 billion dollars by the war's end. Other economic measures were initiated. These included limiting wages, salaries, and farm prices. A freeze on rents and prices of other goods was also instituted. For the first time in their history, Americans were subjected to a rationing system, which allowed for the control of the amount of goods and materials one could purchase.

The United States' participation in the war resulted in many social changes as well. It was probably during this time, more than any other, that the role of a large number of women changed from that of "passive observer" to that of "active participant" in the nation's affairs. Many women became a part of the armed forces; in addition to serving as army and navy nurses, over 200,000 women enlisted in the Women Army Corps (WACS), as Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service (WAVES) in the Navy, as Women Marines or members of the women's reserve (SPARS) in the Coast Guard, and as Women Air Service Pilots (WASPS). They performed many of the non-combat jobs which freed the men for active combat duty. Other women remained on the home front, but

not necessarily at home. The factories and war plants had many job openings which women filled. The War Manpower Commission, which was created in April 1942, had the responibility of mobilizing the nation's manpower and woman power to aid in the war effort.

Not only did the war open the doors of participation for women, but also it opened them for minority persons such as negro Americans. Hundreds of thousands of negroes served in various branches of the military. Many distinguished themselves while serving their country. As an outgrowth of this participation, negroes began to demand more freedom and equality of treatment in jobs and opportunities. President Roosevelt, through an executive action, prohibited discrimination in the hiring of workers in defense plants. The Fair Employment Practices Commission was established as a vehicle to provide greater job opportunities for negroes.[1]

Impact of the War on Chicago Schools

When any major event such as a war occurs, every facet of the society is affected in some manner. The economic and social factors previously mentioned serve as examples of this statement. The public schools were no exception. Across America, schools, their curriculums, and the students were directly affected by the war. Chicago's school system

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[1]Jack Allen and John L. Betts, History: USA (New York: American Book Company, 1971), 586-590.

joined the rest of the country in making whatever contributions it could. The 333 elementary schools, 48 academic, trade and vocational high schools, the junior colleges, and the Chicago Teachers College were dedicated to aiding the war effort. The schools put forth a tremendous effort to ensure that every student thoroughly understood the concept of war, the involvement of the United States, war needs, and the ways in which each one of them could assist in insuring a victory for their country. The success of this effort is evidenced by a poem written by a second grade student:

> I am helping Uncle Sam
> in my own small way;
> I do little things for him
> Every single day.
>
> I run errands, make my bed,
> Dry the dishes too;
> So Dad and Mother will have time
> For the bigger things they do.
>
> When a job my size comes around,
> Folks can count on me,
> I am proud that I can help
> Win our Victory.[2]

The students' course of study included explanations on rationing, labor problems, production problems, the need for price ceilings, and general price controls. Board members, the superintendent, principals, the engineering staff, and teachers were all encouraged to participate in buying war bonds and stamps (more than $7,500,000 in stamps and bonds

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[2]William H. Johnson, Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools for the School Years 1941-42; 1942-43, (Chicago Board of Education, City of Chicago, 1944), 13.

were purchased). Contributions were made to the Red Cross in the form of money, services, and time. Board of Education employees contributed over one million hours of time in helping with various tasks connected with the war effort. Over 1,500 books and magazines were donated to the United Services Organizations (USO). Continuous donations of cookies, cakes, pies, and other special gifts were presented from the schools and the Parent-Teacher Associations. Special leaves were granted to service men, as well as to the wives of service men, to allow them to accompany their husbands to the various training and military bases located in other states.

Vocational education and defense training programs were established or expanded. National defense classes were held in the evenings to avoid a conflict with the regular schedule of day classes. The establishment of two of the United States Navy training centers was made possible through the aid of Chicago Public Schools' staff members. One center, a newly completed three and one-half million dollar vocational school, was used as a teacher training institution and was the only one of its kind in the United States. Many Chicago vocational teachers were transferred from their regular assignments and utilized as staff in this training center until navy personnel became available. Over 5,000 enlisted members of the United States Navy were given training and approximately 400 men were prepared as teachers

before the Navy assumed complete supervision. The other training center was based at Navy Pier. The facilities at the Washburne Trade School were used to train navy student cooks from the United States Naval Armory. In addition, the Chicago Board of Education, in cooperation with the United States Army, allowed army signal corps classes to be held in three elementary schools, and the Chicago school system's Bureau of Child Study provided invaluable accumulated personnel data on students which made it possible to better assign individuals to the various branches of the services for which they were best suited.[3]

Curriculum Developments during the War: The Developmental Reading Improvement Program

The curriculum reflected the schools' endeavors of aiding the war effort through direct instruction. A long-range program of curriculum improvements and additions was initiated and stressed.

In addition to providing facilities, the Chicago Board of Education structured its course work as a means of preparing Chicago's citizens for the mission of aiding in the war effort. Instructional committees were charged with the duty of investigating the present curriculum, as well as future needs. Instruction in science, mathematics, foreign

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[3]William H. Johnson, "Chicago Public Schools and the War," Chicago Schools Journal, XXIV (September 1942-June 1943: 49-54.

languages, and reading was scrutinized.

Prior to the war, Chicago had a remedial reading program in the freshman year of high school. Students who entered high school with reading grades or scores below the expected normal level were assigned to special English classes in which remedial reading instruction was given. Students would be required to remain in this remedial reading class until their reading scores were raised to their mental age/grade expectancy. This practice seemingly produced some positive results as evidenced by the Army and Navy pre-induction tests which indicated that the youngest inductees had fewer reading difficulties than their older counterparts who exhibited reading deficiencies. These findings may have prompted the Board to initiate a developmental reading improvement program as an intervention strategy. This particular reading program, started in 1942, included grades four to twelve and was based on the philosophy that students should be provided with explicit instruction in reading skills throughout their school life.

Around October 1, 1942, the new reading improvement program was introduced to all the elementary school principals. The grades targeted were four to eight. Emphasis was to be placed on: (1) the separation of work type or the teaching of skills and recreational reading; (2) the teaching of definite skills at the middle and upper grade reading levels; (3) provision for reading in curricular or content

areas, such as science, social studies, and mathematics, especially in grades seven and eight; and (4) coordination of the reading programs between the elementary school and the high school. Each classroom teacher was to instruct all students in reading except those who had been determined mentally disabled.[4] This developmental reading program also provided for growth in reading interests and literature appreciation as well as an emphasis on reading skills such as reading directions, interpreting maps and graphs, and taking notes.

The teaching of these skills was most essential as indicated by the results of tests given to candidates applying for special military, naval, and air services. These men exhibited a noticeable lack of proficiency in reading and understanding specific instructions. They also seemed to be uninformed on current events and current affairs. Students were introduced to these specific skills and subject areas in the fourth grade, with the hope that by the time they graduated from high school, they would have had sufficient exposure and practice in following printed directions, finding subordinate ideas related to the main idea, outlining, writing summaries, and filling out applications for employment. Teachers were organized into various committees to facilitate a cooperative effort of attacking reading prob-

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[4]Ibid., 558.

lems encountered by their students. These teachers discussed, examined, and evaluated reading objectives, methods, and materials in an attempt to make the reading program as comprehensive as possible.[5]

Superintendent William H. Johnson, in his annual report for the years 1941-42 and 1942-43, stated:

> No activity of the school is more important in war or peace than providing reading experiences that will prepare children for meeting the strenuous requirements of living in a democratic society. The present world conflict has only emphasized the urgent need for intelligent readers. Against the compelling background of war but concerned primarily with the enduring values of this form of this experience for the welfare of our country and its future citizens, the administration of the Chicago schools has given much attention this past year to the improvement of reading at every grade level.
>
> The Chicago developmental reading program, which is an outgrowth of the Superintendent's policies in the field of reading since 1936, stresses the need for a continuous, systematic, and coordinated effort on the part of all teachers and administrators to bring about a maximum growth of reading ability in each child. To attain this objective definite instruction in reading skills is provided for all pupils; proper study habits are established through setting up important purposes for the reading of informational and factual materials; and finally, appropriate attitudes toward reading as a desirable leisure-time activity are cultivated by allowing children many opportunities to enjoy literature and recreational reading related to their particular interests and abilities.[6]

The superintendent foresaw the need for a structured and correlated reading program. By the year 1945 the enrollment for the 338 elementary schools, with 7,903 teach-

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[5]Ibid., 54.

[6]Ibid., 163-64.

ers, reached 255,352 students.[7] The developmental reading program was initiated in the primary grades and spiraled upwards through the intermediate and upper grades. During the period between June 1944 and September 1950, the Bureau of Curriculum published guides which delineated the skills to be taught for each grade level. The guides were used in conjunction with basal readers or text readers which were developed by various publishing companies. The following were some of the basal texts used:

Title	Publisher
We Look and See	Scott-Foresman
We Work and Play	Scott-Foresman
We Come and Go	Scott-Foresman
Fun with Dick and Jane	Scott-Foresman
Path and Pathfinders	Scott-Foresman
Happy Days	Row-Peterson
Day In and Day Out	Row-Peterson
Friendly Village	Row-Peterson
Making New Friends	Ginn
People and Places	Ginn
We Live in a City	Ginn
Neighbors and Helpers	Lyons-Carnahan
Friends About Us	Lyons-Carnahan
Good Times Together	Lyons-Carnahan
The Story Road	Winston
Going to School	Winston
Far Away Ports	Winston
At Play	Winston

The districts or the schools had the opportunity of selecting the basal text to be used; however, each teacher was required to follow the curriculum guide.

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[7] Chicago Daily News Almanac, Charles L. Allen, ed. (Evanston, Illinois: Medill School of Journalism, Northwestern University, 1946), 965.

Reading Instruction for Grades 1-8 from 1944 to 1950

Reading instruction for the primary grades was consistent with the interest level and ability of young children. The reading experiences included oral discussions, writing, singing, and play acting. Skills such as sequencing (arranging ideas or pictures in an orderly fashion), determinating important and unimportant details, and reading for meaning were emphasized. Techniques used for checking comprehension included use of multiple choice, completion, and matching tests. Phonics were heavily stressed.

Grade One

Grade one included three stages. The three stages were pre-primer, primer, and first reader.

In the pre-primer stage, reading readiness was emphasized by addressing the students' physical, mental, social, and emotional needs. The young children were expected to acquire favorable attitudes; they were also expected to acquire a background of concepts and vocabulary through various experiential activities such as making visits to parks, beaches, farms, the zoo, and the airport. Reading readiness also involved the development of good speech habits, such as the accurate pronounciation and enunciation of words. Charts, games, and puzzles were used to help develop the students' abilities to think and solve problems, as well as aid in the development of each child's

sensory perception, and auditory and visual discrimination. Activities in tracing, coloring, cutting, painting, constructing, and clay modeling were used to help develop kinesthetic and tactile discrimination; oral poetry and story reading were used to develop an interest in reading and a desire for books. The children were expected to be able to informally read names, signs, labels, titles, familiar rhymes, and cooperative stories by the end of the reading readiness stage. They were also expected to acquire an interest in and background for reading through independent and purposeful seatwork. Basal texts such as We Look and See, We Come and Go, and We Work and Play were some of the pre-primers used in the teaching of reading at this level.

The primer stage involved learning to read. In this stage the students were expected to read from the blackboard and charts; to acquire a basic sight vocabulary; to learn how to handle books correctly; to be able to read parts of several primers; to be able to read silently for specific purposes such as following a simple direction, answering a question, and finding out how a story ends; and to acquire interest and experiences in reading through independent and purposeful seatwork. Beginning phonics were introduced by using pictures of familiar objects to train the children in the sounds of letters using auditory discrimination only. Primers such as Day in and Day Out, and Fun

with Dick and Jane were used.

The first reader stage required the students to acquire a larger speaking and reading vocabulary, to gain greater facility in handling books, to be able to read several easy first readers and more difficult primers, to be able to read silently for specific purposes, and to acquire extended interest and experiences in reading through independent and purposeful seatwork. Phonics were taught to provide the students with a strategy for attacking new and unfamiliar words. The introduction of individual consonant sounds, such as s, f and p occurred at this level. The diagraphs sh and ch were also introduced. Students read from Our New Friends and Good Times Together among other basals.

Grade Two

In the second grade, students were expected to be able to read grade level materials with fluency and accuracy, be able to read materials of increasing difficulty with reasonable speed and comprehension, acquire an interest in the classroom library, acquire a larger speaking and reading vocabulary; and gain independence in word recognition. In the area of phonics, initial consonant blends and the diagraphs fr, gr, st, tr, br, and sh were taught. Syllabication, prefixes, and suffixes were covered. In regards to structural analysis, the word endings ing, y, ly, er, and est were taught. The long and short vowels a, e, i, o, and u, were taught at this level.

Grade Three

The third grade, which is usually considered the transitional grade between the primary and intermediate levels, required the students to do more silent reading with materials that were more difficult and more varied in their purpose. The students were expected to utilize easy reading material for oral reading as a means of developing fluency, speed, rhythmic eye movement, and wide perceptual span. The students were expected to be able to read in order to secure precise information similar to that found in content area subjects; to be able to reread as a means of determining important details and the main idea of a paragraph, to answer questions, and to make simple outlines. Third graders were also introduced to the concept of a paragraph and chapter. In the area of word study, they were taught simple syllabication, the recognition of the most common prefixes and suffixes, and essential phonetic elements such as the teaching of the hard and soft g, the silent letters in wr and kn, vowel diagraphs and dipthongs, and three letter blends such as spr, str, scr, and squ.

Grade Four

In the fourth grade, the students were taught the difference between purposeful reading (reading to find answers, to follow specific directions, or to make a simple report), and recreatory reading (reading for fun and pleasure). They were also taught how to use and understand the specific

vocabulary found in social studies, science, and arithmetic texts. Understanding and interpreting simple maps, graphs, charts, and tables were also included as reading skills the students were expected to master. Word study for this grade level included syllabication, phonic elements, prefixes and suffixes, synonyms and antonyms, and the ability to independently attack the pronunciation and meaning of new and unfamiliar words.

Grade Five

There were no new reading skills introduced or taught at the fifth grade level. However, in the area of word study and phonics, the students were taught to recognize the beginning, medial, and final consonant blends. They were also taught to recognize root words and to build new ones. The other skills taught in the fourth grade were emphasized and expanded.

Grade Six

As in grade five, no new reading skills were introduced or taught; however, more difficult materials were used. The Bureau of Curriculum did not provide any rationale or reasons for maintaining the same skills for three years.

Grades Seven and Eight

At the upper grade levels, emphasis was placed on the improvement of the students' comprehension, interpretation, and thinking skills. They were taught to apply their read-

ing skills and techniques to vocabulary extension and enrichment, dictionary study, and usage of the card catalogue and reference materials. In the area of structural analysis the principles governing syllabication were taught.[8]

The Chicago program in developmental reading placed emphasis on what, at that time, was called "work reading" and literature at all the grade levels. The teacher was to provide instruction to the students in the areas of study skills, comprehension, vocabulary development, and interpretation of written materials.

Assessment Procedures for the Developmental Reading Program

As with every educational program, in order to determine the progress of the students, it was necessary to devise some method whereby the effectiveness of instruction, strategies, and materials could be evaluated. The superintendent of schools initiated the Chicago Reading Tests to serve this purpose. It was his hope and plan that the use of these tests would not be limited to Chicago, but would be used in other cities as well.

An instructor from Chicago Teachers College and a special examiner from the Chicago City College directed the construction and standardization of the reading tests. The Chicago Reading Tests and their forms were as follows:

Reading Test A: Forms 1, 2, and 3 for Grades 1 and 2

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[8]Bureau of Curriculum, Areas of Study in the Elementary Schools, (Chicago: Chicago Public Schools 1944), 1-12.

Reading Test B: Forms 1, 2, and 3 for Grades 2, 3,
Reading Test C: Forms 1, 2, and 3 for Grades 4, 5, and 6
Reading Test D: Forms 1, 2, and 3 for Grades 6, 7, and 8

Reading Test A, for grades 1 and 2, consisted of five sections. The first section contained a series of word meaning items in which the students had to select one out of five words that referred to an object illustrated on the page. In the second section the students had to select one of five phrases that corresponded to an object or action pictured on the page. The third section contained a series of sentence-comprehension items in which the students had to underline the one word in a group of five which completed each sentence correctly. The fourth section assessed how well the students could follow directions. The fifth section contained a series of paragraph-comprehension exercises. The students had to underline the one word or phrase in a group of five which completed a sentence related to the paragraph.

Reading Test B contained three sections. The first section was entitled "Comprehension of Words;" the second section was called "Comprehension of Phrases and Sentences;" and the third section had the title, "Comprehension of Story, Directions, and Paragraphs."

Reading Test C also had three sections, namely "Comprehension of Words," "Comprehension of Sentences," and the last section which consisted of items having to do with the comprehension of a story and paragraphs.

Reading Test D followed the general pattern of Reading Tests B and C for the most part. The items were more difficult and graphs and maps were included.[9]

Reading Instruction from 1950 to 1960

Reading has always been regarded as the foundation of education. It is the one subject that is taught at every grade level of the elementary school from kindergarten through eighth grade on a daily basis. Every superintendent has placed the reading achievement of students as the top priority of his or her administration.

In 1950 the enrollment of the elementary schools was 293,142 students. Herold C. Hunt was the general superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools, and he was faced with the same challenge as the superintendents before him and the superintendents who would follow; this challenge was to have an effective and viable reading program. Dr. Hunt continued with developmental reading as the instructional program for the schools.

In 1953 Benjamin C. Willis became the new superintendent. He, too, was greeted with new and diverse challenges. Many changes, social, racial, economic, and educational, had occurred since the war years. Because of these changes, new responsibilities were placed on the schools; however, the

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[9]Board of Education of the City of Chicago, Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools, (Chicago: the Board, 1940-41), 138-41.

schools were not necessarily equipped or ready to cope with these responsibilities.

Economic, Social, and Racial Change

The economic base of Chicago was changing rapidly as a result of the movement of numerous whites from the city to the suburbs. According to Herrick, the suburban flight started as early as 1910. Between the years of 1910 and 1950 the population in the suburbs tripled in number, and between 1950 and 1960, it doubled. The school system did not escape the effects of this population change. Property located in the inner city deteriorated with age and use. The number of children attending public schools increased, while the number attending parochial schools decreased; yet the assessed value of the city real estate per public school child was lowered by approximately $3,000. Another factor that contributed to the economic decline of the city was the demolition of existing buildings to construct adequate roads to facilitate travel to the suburbs. The removal of these buildings greatly reduced the tax base. In addition, a reduction in taxable property occurred as slums were replaced by public housing, which was not required to pay full taxes. The structural face of the city was changing due to new city planning and urban renewal, and the racial makeup was changing due to the great migration of workers to the north from the south and other areas.

These workers represented diverse racial and ethnic

groups, which included whites, Puerto Ricans, and negroes; however, the negroes came in the largest numbers. The census of 1840 determined there were only 53 negroes living in Chicago or 1.2 percent of the population. By 1900 the number rose to 30,000, which was 1.8 percent of the total population. However, between the years of 1900 and 1950 the number of negroes increased from 30,000 to 492,000, or 13.6 percent of the population; and between 1950 and 1960 the census figure was 812,637 or 23.6 percent of the population.[10]

All of the migrants came to Chicago with hopes and dreams of a better education, more opportunities, and an improved way of life for their children. The ones who could afford housing in the suburbs, moved there; those who could not, moved to the industrial suburbs near the city or to the new communities that had developed on the edge of the city. Some of the ethnic groups, such as the Poles, united with their countrymen and tended to settle in areas already established. The poorer migrants, such as the negroes, tended to move into the central areas of the city and into buildings and neighborhoods that were already worn out and deteriorating from previous inhabitants. Seemingly the majority of them moved into areas on the west and south sides of the city. In one area, North Lawndale, between the

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[10]Mary J. Herrick, The Chicago Schools: A Social and Political History Beverly Hills, California: (Sage Publications, Inc., 1971), 304.

years of 1950 and 1960, 76,300 white people moved out and were replaced by 100,700 negroes. The negroes, perhaps due to the racial biases and prejudices suffered in the south, came north with more hope and bigger dreams of better conditions than the other ethnic groups. However their dreams of a better life became an economic nightmare. Evidence of this is stated in Herrick's book:

> In 1960, 5 percent of the male workers of the city were unemployed. While 35 percent of the Negro population were middle-class in income, 53 percent were unskilled laborers, and 11 percent-not-5 were unemployed, double the city ratio. In 1960 the median family income of the city was $6,738, but for the Negro family it was $3,763, near the "poverty level." By 1950 thirty-one of every 1000 persons in the city were receiving public assistance. Of the 272,860 persons receiving public assistance in 1962, 90.5 percent were Negro. The welfare system and inability of men to earn enough to support a family discouraged normal family life. Chicago had the highest degree of residential segregation of any city in the United States. Seventy percent of the Negroes on public assistance lived in six communities each almost 100 percent Negro.[11]

Impact on the Curriculum

The public schools on the west and south sides therefore became overcrowded with a new racial population. Like the housing units, many of the schools were old; some had been built before the Civil War. These schools, which were unprepared for this onslaught of unexpected numbers, tried to address the problem by having double shifts, which meant the students attended school for only half of a day, after which a second group would attend for the other half. This

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[11]Ibid, 305.

situationation did very little to help fulfill the dreams the migrants had of a better education for their children.

In the south, from where these people had fled, education for negroes had been so inadequate that it was considered to be almost nonexistent; however, parents felt the schools of the north would offer opportunities of learning which previously had been denied. But various problems existed which hindered the schools in their attempts to provide children with the type of education necessary for success. The children came to school with deficiencies in the areas of health care, positive environmental influences, cultural advantages, and learning skills in general. These elements represented just a few of the obstacles the schools faced in their attempts to provide the children with the type of education necessary for success. Unfortunately, Chicago schools were not able to overcome these hurdles.

The chance of an equal opportunity for a good education was very slim for children whose families were poor. As national educational standards steadily increased, the skill competencies of these students decreased. At a time when there was little demand for unskilled labor, when semi-illiteracy or the lack of reading skills meant unemployment, and when a low reading level was synonymous with continuous failure, the schools recognized the need for improved instruction, but were unable to provide a sound and useful education to these children. The educational system seemed

totally incapable of meeting their unique needs, especially in the most crucial area of teaching them adequate reading skills.

In 1953 Havighurst's developmental task theory stated that the accomplishment of certain tasks at each stage of a child's development was essential to that child's "healthy personality growth."[12] Learning to read has always been considered a significant development task, especially at the elementary level. It has been the core or foundation of the school's curriculum since the inception of the first schoolroom; hence the concern that every student be taught reading skills. Chicago's school system made attempts to accomplish this goal. The children in low income areas were given special help by way of after-school speech classes, reading clinics, and after-school remedial reading classes in an effort to close the educational and cultural gap of the negro students. Such endeavors did not meet with success; these students did not respond to the traditional methods used to teach reading. A study of the Chicago Public Schools by Robert J. Havighurst in 1963 substantiates this statement. He made the following observation:

> Most experts who have studied the problems of reading in the schools would be reasonably satisfied with the basic methods used in the Chicago Public Schools, except for the work with the socially disadvantaged or culturally deprived child. For this child a consultant writes:

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[12]Albert J. Harris and Edward R. Sipay, How to Increase Reading Ability: A Guide to Developmental and Remedial Methods, (New York: Longman, Inc., 1980), 317.

> Tried and true traditional approaches are not working in Chicago. In those districts with the largest percentage of culturally disadvantaged families, standardized reading tests indicate one half to two years' retardation. A highly visual and tactile approach to words growing from students' experiences should be explored in the early grades. These students should not meet typical basal readers and other books until they have more familiarity with the concepts attached to the printed symbols. This early aproach might capitalize on audio-visual approaches, manipulative materials, and very brief booklets.[13]

Havighurst's recommendation that students with limited exposure needed "more familiarity with the concepts attached to the printed symbols" would have a definite impact on textbooks developed for large urban areas, especially Chicago. Since reading had been considered one of the most significant mediums by which these concepts were developed and enhanced, focus on the relevancy of concepts presented in basal texts became a major criterion for selecting appropriate reading materials for the public schools of Chicago. A concept has been generally defined as a construct which is the result of experience, which may be identified by a word or an idea, and which has a functional value to the individual's thinking and behavior.

William S. Gray believed the problems in forming concepts through reading were the result of three elements: (1) the nature of the concepts themselves; (2) the way in which the concepts are expressed; and (3) the inherent

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[13]Robert J. Havighurst, The Public Schools of Chicago: A Survey for the Board of Education of the City of Chicago (Chicago: Board of Education of the City of Chicago, 1964), 119.

limitations of the reader. Many of the basic concepts found in reading materials, regardless of the levels of difficulty, generally revolve around the following five types of ideas:

1. Concrete concepts (objects and processes). Such concepts are the most basic and probably the first to be acquired if concepts are to be considered as developing along a continuum from the concrete to more and more abstract realms. Concrete concepts are primarily concerned with objects and their function: for example, a glass is an object; its function is to hold water. Since concepts of this kind are subject to direct experience, they are probably the easiest to acquire.

2. Chronological concepts (hours, seasons, historic events). These concepts are more abstract by nature and are concerned with ideas that are increasingly difficult to relate to direct experience. Chronological time, such as that found in history, is perhaps one of the most difficult time concepts which children face because they lack experience which would make it comprehensible. Hours and seasons are more easily understood because they are experienced by the individual.

3. Spatial concepts (geographical and spatial organization). These concepts are concerned with ideas which may contain multi-dimensional characteristics. The comprehension of latitude and longitude and their functional use in reading a map would be an example of such a concept.

4. Numerical concepts (basic number facts and processes). To a certain degree these concepts are subject to direct experience. The knowledge of these basic number facts allows the individual to solve problems which are concerned with quantity. Thus in a functional situation, such as purchasing goods at a store, the knowledge of addition or multiplication may be used to determine the cost.

5. Social concepts (understanding, attitude, and adjustment to the environment). Examples of such concepts are "co-operation," "patriotism," "government," and "justice." A concept such as "cooperation," like many of the other social concepts, such as a specific

> situation where a certain type of behavior is desirable, or it may be generalized. A concept such as "justice," with all its ramifications, would be an example of a high degree of abstractness. The effectiveness of learning through reading is based largely upon the extent to which relations in or among these types of concepts are grasped and utilized.[14]

Seemingly neither the concepts nor their relationship were being "grasped nor utilized" by this population of students. The methods and materials were neither appropriate nor effective. Some adjustments were in order.

Reading Texts

Methods, strategies, and techniques were essential in the teaching of reading. However, of equal importance were the textbooks and other materials used in teaching various reading skills and concepts. Most educators would agree that one major goal of education is to develop functional concepts as a basis for critical thinking on the part of the student, but as it has been pointed out, the student must first be able to relate to the concepts presented. The reading books used in Chicago schools during this period made the task of relating to the stories very difficult, especially for the minority students.

Prior to the entrance of the United States into the War, America primarily had been "a man's country," where the dominance of the male was made quite obvious in the

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[14]William S. Gray, "Reading and Understanding," Elementary English, XCIII (March, 1957), 148-59.

types of jobs occupied by men only and in the roles portrayed for and by males. The various textbooks used in the schools, such as reading, social studies, and science, depicted men in certain jobs or positions, thereby giving the impression that only men should or could hold such jobs. For example, one basal reader used in many of the Chicago public schools had a unit titled "People at Work." The unit contained four stories about various professions and occupations: The Men Who Run the Trains, a story about people who operated freight and passenger trains, The Forest Firemen, about firefighters in the forests and woods, Ready to Roll, about truck drivers, and Skyscraper Housekeeping, a story centered around the people who kept large buildings clean and orderly; out of these four stories, the first three depicted only men in the working roles. In Skyscraper Housekeeping, women were included, but in their "typical role, mopping and vacuuming the floors".[15]

In many of the readers, published and/or used between 1940 and 1960, the man was generally pictured as the breadwinner, the one who kissed mother and the children good-bye and went off to work, while the woman was characterized as the homemaker. These textbooks exhibited not only a sexist attitude, but also one of the white ethnic middle class.

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[15]David H. Russell, Theodore Clymer, and Gretchen Wulfing, Friends Far and Near (Boston, Massachusetts: Ginn and Company, 1953), 56-102.

Examples of this sexist, cultural, and racial bias appeared in the primary basal series most commonly selected by the schools and that were also on the Board's approved textbook list. Basal readers such as Fun with Dick and Jane, published by Scott, Foresman and Company, Happy Days, by Row Peterson, and Make New Friends, by Ginn, were representative of these readers, in which the characters generally included a mother, father, two to three children, grandparents, a pet dog, a kitten, and a favorite toy such as a stuffed teddy bear. The family lived in a nice house with a yard that had green grass, pretty flowers, and a white picket fence. The grandparents did not live with the family, but had a pleasant farm in the country, where the children could go for visits and play with the animals. The father went to work each day in a suit, tie, and white shirt. The mother stayed home, baked cookies, and played with the children.

The language pattern in these readers, in addition to the social and cultural concepts, was not what the average Chicago public school student used or heard on a daily basis. For example, in the basal reader Fun with Dick and Jane, the students encountered the following text:

See It Go

"Look," said Dick.
"See it go.
See it go up."
Jane said, "Oh, look!
See it go.

See it go up."
"Up, up," said Sally.
"Go up, up, up."

Jane said, "Down, down.
Down it comes
Run Dick.
We can find it."

"See me run," said Sally.
"See Spot run.
Oh, oh!
This is fun."

"Oh, look!" said Dick.
"It is Father.
Oh, my!
Father looks funny."

Jane said, "My, my!
This is not fun.
This is not fun for Father."[16]

The school system was aware, even before Havighurst's declaration in 1963, that the new population of "socially disadvantaged or culturally deprived" children presented a great challenge to its task of teaching every child to read. He realized that reading materials such as the sample cited were neither relevant nor meaningful to the negro child who lived in a densely populated area that contained apartments, not individual family dwellings like those depicted in some of the basal readers; whose father, if there was a father in the home, did not go to work in a suit and tie, if he had a job to which to go; and that it was the rule, rather than staying home with the children. The system tried to respond

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[16]Williams S. Gray and May Hill Arbuthnot, Fun with Dick and Jane (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1940), 6-9.

to this problem of irrelevant textbooks by reviewing and revising its method of selecting these materials. A "multiple adoption" plan was introduced, as was the "quadrennial evaluation."

The multiple adoption plan provided for the placement of four basic titles and approximately four auxiliary titles on the approved list in each subject area and grade level. The quadrennial evaluation simply meant the evaluation would occur every four years. An evaluation committee, composed of experienced teachers and principals representing the various grade levels and subject areas from both the elementary and high schools, reviewed samples and listened to presentations from publishers before final selections were made. Each title was individually evaluated by the committee and rated according to several specific criteria such as:

1. Will the content meet the needs of the children in this subject area at the indicated grade level?
2. Is the material properly organized to facilitate the teaching process?
3. Does it contain adequate instructional aids?
4. Are the physical characteristics of the book or material satisfactory?
5. Does it present a wholesome picture of the American way of life in our democracy?[17]

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[17]Chicago Board of Education. Educational Progress in the Chicago Public Schools (Chicago: Board of Education January 1953), 3.

This multiple adoption plan and the criteria for the selection of materials resulted in basal readers including stories about minorities, stories about "real" boys and girls with which children in similar situations and backgrounds could relate. Instead of reading about Dick and Jane and seeing pictures of the neat little house surrounded by a white picket fence, the students were exposed to passages such as the following:

> Benjie opened his eyes and remembered that it was Sunday. He got up and looked out the window to see what kind of day it was. Across the yard Mrs. Atkins was hanging her blankets in her window to air them....They set off, down the stairs and down the stairs and down the stairs, from the fourth floor to the sidewalk. Mr. Atkins and some other neighbors were sitting on the front steps....[18]

Other stories about Chinese and Hispanic children and their customs were also included in this particular reader, which was an indication that publishers and educators were becoming aware of the importance of having relevant reading materials.

The Board of Education of the City of Chicago also initiated a human relations program in an attempt to foster a better understanding among the different ethnic groups and, hopefully, to close or fill the social and cultural gap of the minority students. This was a four-year project co-sponsored and supported by the Human Relations Committee of

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[18]David H. Russell, Theodore Clymer, Gretchen Wulfing, and Odille Ousley, Finding New Neighbors (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1961), 206-208.

the Chicago Public Schools, the Department of Instruction and Guidance, and the Department of Elementary Education. The program was piloted at the Kenwood School. The Kenwood school-community council examined the myriad of problems the students, teachers, parents, and other community members were experiencing as the result of a changing neighborhood due to rapid growth and population mobility. Activities such as taking community trips, viewing films and filmstrips, and working and playing together were used to teach the students how to get along; strategies such as role playing and psychodrama were used to help the students understand each other's problems. "A realistic program" was the way in which this concept was described. The Board considered it as a possible panacea to one of its most pressing problems. An article in Educational Progress had this report:

> In the Kenwood program good human relations are regarded as fundamental to all classroom activities. Units of study are directed toward developing respect for the dignity of all human beings. Through art, literature, and music, pupils learn that our American culture is enriched through the process of sharing and exchanging the contributions made by the many social, religious, and ethnic groups that comprise our nation. Attitudes of fair play and good sportsmanship are fostered by interschool activities. Pupil participation in committee work, service clubs, and civic associations is directed toward planning and working in a manner that develops cooperation, understanding, and democratic living.[19]

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[19]Chicago Board of Education Educational Progress in the Chicago Public Schools (Chicago: Board of Education May, 1955), 2-3.

The city of Chicago, its citizens, and its school system experienced countless changes during and after World War II. Some of these changes, such as more women in the workplace, more technology, and an increase in the suburban population, came and were accepted because they were considered to be "progress." The great influx of migrants had a different effect. To many, they were considered a "problem" for the city, the economy, the neighborhoods, and especially the schools. However, as one decade ended and another began, the Board in all of its wisdom and foresight probably could not foresee the tremendous impact the negroes would have on society and, most importantly, on the school system and its curriculum. Because of the implications expressed by Havighurst and others, the instructional program and the materials were scrutinized as to their effectiveness. The next ten years would see society involved in a revolution and this revolution would spill over into the schools, affecting the curriculum and more specifically the subject of reading, how it would be taught, and what materials would be used to teach it. A change was on the way.

CHAPTER IV

THE READING PROGRAM: 1960-1970

Political Trends

The year 1960 was the beginning of a period in American history that brought about many new changes, but not without much strife and turmoil.* The events that took place on a national level directly affected the economic, social, and educational trends in Chicago, for 1960 was an election year with Richard M. Nixon as the Republican candidate and John F. Kennedy as the Democratic candidate. It was a year of "firsts," the first time a Catholic was elected president and the first time a president as young as Kennedy was elected to the highest office in the nation. President Kennedy, in his inaugural address, set the pace for the changes he felt were necessary to move the country ahead. He urged the American people as follows:

> Let the word go forth...that the torch has been passed to a new generation of Americans--born in this country, tempered by war, disciplined by a hard and bitter peace, proud of our ancient heritage--and unwilling to witness or permit the slow undoing of those human rights to which this nation has always been committed....
>
> And so, my fellow Americans, ask not what your country

*NOTE: In the earlier sections of this chapter, the writer uses the term "Negro" when referring to African-Americans. This was the accepted term until the late 1960s and the call for ethnic pride, when the term negro was exchanged for the terms "Black" and "African-American."

can do for you--ask what you can do for your country.[1]

Kennedy proposed a new beginning for America. During this presidential campaign, he constantly pledged to lead the citizens of America "to the edge of a new frontier."[2] This new frontier meant the launching of new programs that would aid in the elimination of poverty and discrimination in the United States. These programs included such proposals as providing medical care for the aged, expanding civil rights for Negroes, and increasing federal aid to education. Unfortunately, Congress would not pass these bills. However, Kennedy was able to raise the minimum wage from $1.00 to $1.25 an hour for workers. He was successful in getting Social Security benefits expanded to include more people, as well as getting another bill passed which provided aid to areas designated as depressed or to parts of the country that had a high rate of unemployment.[3]

President Kennedy was committed to insuring that Negro Americans received equal treatment under the protec- tion of the law. He openly and actively supported the Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka decision whereby the Supreme

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[1]Leonard C. Wood, Ralph H. Gabriel, and Edward L. Biller, America: Its People and Values (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1985), 735.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Margaret Stimmann Branson, America's Heritage (Lexington, Massachusetts: Ginn and Company, 1986), 530.

Court ruled segregated public schools unconstitutional. He used federal troops to enforce this decision in Oxford, Mississippi, where school officials were compelled to admit the first black student, James Meredith, to the University of Mississippi.

The Twenty-third Admendment to the United States Constitution was approved under Kennedy's administration. Under this amendment, the residents of the District of Columbia obtained voting rights for the first time.[4]

Robert Kennedy, the United States Attorney General, also took a hard line as far as civil rights were concerned. He supported the freedom riders, an integrated group of people who used buses to travel from town to town in an attempt to end segregation in the waiting rooms of bus stations across the south.

This movement towards civil rights did not start in the sixties with the Kennedy administration. In the past, unsolved problems at home, challenges from abroad, crowded cities, and a slow economy all contributed to preventing Negroes and other minorities from getting their fair share of the nation's wealth. Therefore, the struggle for equal opportunities had been an ongoing conflict since the Emancipation Proclamation was issued. Battles in the courts and on the streets had taken place as Negroes organized and de-

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[4]Leonard C. Wood, Ralph H. Gabriel, and Edward L. Biller, America: Its People and Values (New York: Harcourt Brace and Jovanovich, 1985), 726.

manded full citizenship and all accompanying rights. Some changes were taking place, but progress was slow.

Once such change took place in 1954 when the Supreme Court overturned the Plessy v. Ferguson decision of 1896. This decision had ruled that segregation of railroad cars was legal as long as the facilities were equal in quality and delivery of service. The southern states had continued to use this "separate but equal" concept as a means of justifying and enforcing segregation. This law was applied to bus and train stations, eating places, motels, hotels, and schools. These places were separate, but, as observation alone could determine, were not equal. In 1956, after a successful bus boycott, sparked by Rosa Parks who refused to move to the back of a bus, and ignited by Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., segregation on public buses was ruled unconstitutional by the Supreme Court.

Another sign of progress occurred in 1957 when President Eisenhower used federal troops to initiate the integration of an all-white Little Rock, Arkansas high school. It was during this time that the first Civil Rights Act since Reconstruction was passed.[5]

Negroes were not the only group fighting for and demanding equal rights and equal treatment during this period. Women, since the time of the "Suffragettes," had struggled

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[5]Ibid., 720-21.

to obtain rights equal to those of men. In spite of their participation during the war years and the many strides accomplished since then, women still found themselves to be second class citizens in comparison to men. As late as 1960, certain professions, such as law, medicine, and engineering, were still considered a man's domain and were difficult areas for women to enter. In addition, inequalities in salaries paid men and women for the same job still existed.

In an effort to address the problems of women's rights (or the lack of same), the Commission on the Status of Women was created. This commission was the first federal agency specifically created to investigate discrimination against women and deal with infringements on their rights. It was headed by former first lady Eleanor Roosevelt. As a result of the commission's work, Congress passed the Equal Pay Act of 1963, which required employers to pay women equal wages for equal work performed. This law, needless to say, did not solve the problem of unequal pay for all women in the workplace; many employers simply changed the job titles and descriptions of men and women doing the same type of job. Women did not let loopholes in the law deter them. They remembered that old adage "divided we fall, together we stand" and banded together for what someone referred to as "the second suffrage battle." There were many notable women who came out of the women's movement, one being Betty Friedan. She published the book <u>The Feminine Mystique</u> in

1963, in which she stressed that it was alright for a woman to have a career and a family if she so desired. In 1966, she also helped to create the National Organization for Women (NOW).[6]

These events, although happening on the national level, affected and influenced events on the local level as well. In Chicago, this influence was reflected in some of the readers used in the Chicago Public Schools. For example, many of the basal readers which previously had depicted women in the role of "housewife and mother" revised their sterotyped concept of women. One such reader was Basic Reading, Book F, published by J.B. Lippincott Company and its story about Florence Nightingale was written in the following manner:

Florence Nightingale

> Today boys and girls go to school together, and play together. They work in factories, in offices, and in stores. Girls as well as boys become writers, doctors, lawyers, and scientists. Girls fly airplanes, make daring jumps in parachutes, and even drive taxicabs.
>
> Women vote, of course, just as men do; and they hold many important positions in our government. Women are ambassadors to foreign countries. They have been governors, senators, and members of the House of Representatives in Washington.
>
> Women have become famous athletes. They skate, ski, and drive racing cars. Some women even go in for professional wrestling, and the rough sport of roller-derby skating.
>
> Women today can do just about anything that they are able to do. We do not see many women driving trucks, laying bricks, or working in coal mines; but nobody says

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[6]Ibid., 747.

they absolutely cannot.

> Not many years ago, women were generally expected to stay at home cooking, housecleaning, and caring for their children. They were expected to be polite and to be good company, but not to worry about "important" things. They were not allowed to vote. They were not urged to go to high school or college. It was not possible for them to become doctors.
>
> The freedom that girls and women enjoy today has been won for them by the bravery and energy of great and famous women in the past.[7]

The way in which women were viewed in this story compared to the way they were depicted in basal readers published five years earlier demonstrates the effectiveness of the women's movement.

Economic and Social Trends

The population of Chicago in 1960 was 3,550,404. The social and economic conditions were still in a continuous state of change. Since 1950 the socioeconomic level of the city had steadily declined due to the flight from the city of people who were highly educated and who made good incomes. They were replaced with people who had lower levels of education and limited income capabilities. The statistics in the following tables support this observation. Table 1 shows that the educational level of Chicago adults fell below that of adults in other areas in 1960. Table 2 shows the socio-economic ratios (SERs), that is, the ratios of white collar

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[7]Glenn McCracken and Charles C. Walcutt, Basic Reading, Book F (Philadelphia: J.B. Lippincott Company, 1964), 240-41.

to blue collar workers or, in other words, the ratios of professional and business people to factory, manual, and unskilled laborers. The statistics in Table 2 also illustrate the economic effect of the social change resulting from upper and middle class people moving from the city to the suburbs, and the racial change resulting from the great influx of Negroes.

Table 1
Educational Level of Chicago Adults

Median grade of school completed by adults 25 years or over

	1940	1950	1960
Chicago city	8.5	9.6	10.0
Chicago suburban area	8.9	10.8	12.1
Illinois	8.5	9.3	10.5
U.S.A.	8.4	9.3	10.6

Table 2
Socioeconomic Ratios of the Chicago Area*

	U.S.A.	Chicago SMSA	Chicago city	Chicago suburbs	Chicago White	city Nonwhite
1940	.66	.71	.69	.77	.75	.17
1950	.71	.77	.73	.86	.84	.18
1960	.82	.92	.69	1.28	.82	.25

*The socioeconomic ratio is a rough ratio of white-collar to manual workers.[8]

Since 1940, the SER had always been higher for the suburban areas when compared with the city of Chicago; and

[8]Robert J. Havighurst, The Public Schools of Chicago: A Survey for the Board of Education of the City of Chicago (Chicago: Board of Education of the City of Chicago, 1964), 22.

within the city, the ratio had been higher for whites compared to nonwhites. However, the in-migration of nonwhites had widened the gap. These changes, once again, placed a tremendous burden on the public schools. Chicago schools, as in the period following the war, were faced with the problem of finding effective ways to educate children who were not considered "part of the norm."

Havighurst used intelligence quotients (IQs) to demonstrate the correlation between changes in the adult population and how these changes were reflected in the achievement levels of the students. He stated that 53.5 percent of the students had an IQ above 100 in 1958, with the average IQ of Chicago elementary students ranging around 101. In 1964, 48.7 percent of the students had IQs above 100, with the average of all elementary students falling slightly below 100. Although the differences were not large, the implications were clear.[9] (See Table 3 for a complete comparison of the distribution of intelligence quotients.)

Table 3
Comparison of Distribution of Intelligence Quotients
March 1958 Data vs. March 1964 Data
Grades 1-8

Range	March 1958 Report	% of Total	March 1964 Report	% of Total
140 & above	1429	.53	789	.27
130-139	5457	2.04	2804	.96
125-129	6742	2.52	4463	1.53
120-124	12018	4.49	10446	3.60
110-119	48013	17.95	45506	15.69

[9]Ibid., 31.

Range	March 1958 Report	% of Total	March 1964 Report	% of Total
100-109	69340	25.92	7089	26.59
Below 100	124523	46.55	148945	51.36
Total	267540	100.00	290042	100.00
120 & above	25646	9.58	18502	6.36
110-119	48031	17.96	45506	15.69
109 & below	193863	72.46	226034	77.95
Total	267540	100.00	290042	100.00[10]

Havighurst stated the results of these IQ quotients were not adequate measures of the learning ability of all children; that many children of working-class families were considerably brighter than their tests indicated. However, the tests were considered good predictors of the achievement levels of reading, arithmetic, and other school subjects that required verbal intelligence. He further pointed out that four factors existed which helped determine how well a child would perform or achieve in school. One factor was the inborn ability or disability of the child; the second factor was the kind of family life and family training to which the child was exposed. The third factor was the quality of the schooling he or she received; and the fourth factor involved the self-concept or aspirations of the child. According to Havighurst, all of these factors were interactive, influential, and interdependent on one another.

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[10]Education in the Intermediate and Upper Grades in the Chicago Public Schools, Study Report Number Six, 1964 Series (Chicago: Board of Education of the City of Chicago, August 1964), 55.

He referred to these factors as factor A (inborn ability/disability), factor B (family life/training), factor C (quality of schooling), and factor D (self-concept/aspirations).

Children come to school at various levels and with a wide variety of factors A and B. The school, of course, has the responsibility of providing factor C which means it has to consider A, B, and D when planning its educational program. Havighurst referred to "compensatory" education--the type of education that would compensate for the weaknesses of factors A and B of disadvantaged children.[11] The schools were challenged with the task of providing a curriculum that would meet the needs of these students.

In past research, various reading tests have shown a close relation or correlation between reading readiness and socioeconomic levels. A reading readiness test administered at the beginning of first grade can aid a teacher in determining the future reading ability of the students. Students who score average or above may be expected to learn to read during their first year of school, providing they are not already able to read. Those who score below average are expected to experience difficulties in learning to read. It is predicated they will fail first grade and they are not expected to learn to read until second grade or even later.

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[11]Ibid, 32-34.

Factors such as the child's environment, family life, and background are major influences on the learning abilities of that child. The impact of these factors were clearly illustrated in a survey conducted in which sixth graders from twelve different schools throughout the city were tested. Table 4 shows the characteristics and differences between the schools.

The Public Schools of Chicago

Table 4
Characteristics of Selected Sixth Grades

School	Median IQ	% at age and reading level for Grade 6	% under-age	% over-age	% Negro
A	120	25	7	8	0
B	95	15	2	53	0
C	114	20	3	23	50
D	115	10	28	29	50
E	103	23	3	31	100
F	88	10	1	74	99
G	98	23	1	65	2
H	96	15	0	71	2
I	99	36	3	47	100
J	93	20	0	53	80
K	111	28	0	31	0
L	112	16	16	22	40

For example, at School A, the median IQ is 120; the percentage of those students at age and reading level for Grade 6 is 25; the percentage of underage students is 7; overage is 8% and the percentage of Negroes attending this school is zero. School B has a median IQ of 95; percentage of age/reading level is 15; 2% are underage and 53% overaged; zero percentage of Negroes attend. In School F, the median IQ is 88; 10% are at age/reading level; 1% is underage; 74% overage; and the percentage of Negroes is 99. An indepth look at these three schools revealed School A was located in an upper-income area where parents were well-educated, held good paying jobs, and had high expectations for their children. The majority of the sixth grade students were reading above the seventh-grade level, with 15% of them reading at the high school level of 12th grade. School

> B, which was located approximately a mile or two from School A, was in a neighborhood that had recently become populated with white migrants from the rural south. The income and parental education levels were both low. School F was located in a high transitory-low income area and populated with almost 100% Negroes.[12]

Havighurst stressed that low-income parents loved their children as dearly as those with high incomes and that they gave their children the same kinds of intellectual stimulation as other parents. However research has indicated in many low-income families, the family background and training factors are weak areas; parents do not read as often to their children, nor do their children see them reading on a frequent basis. Conversation is usually limited which, in turn, limits the children's vocabulary. All these factors lead to intellectual deprivation, which places these students at a severe disadvantage when it comes to them learning to read. The students in the aforementioned survey fell into this category of being intellectually deprived and socially disadvantaged.

Racial Trends in Chicago Public Schools

Although the Supreme Court had overturned the Plessy v. Ferguson decision in 1954, had declared segregation unconstitutional, and had ordered southern states to desegregate their schools, the problem of segregation in the schools across the country not only still existed, but was steadily growing worse. According to the U.S. Civil Rights

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[12]Ibid., 45.

Commission, approximately 75 percent of Negro students attended elementary schools that had enrollments of 90 percent or more blacks. Eighty-three percent of white students attended schools that were nearly all white. Additionally, the commission reported this type of isolation was harmful to black children in that attitudes of inferiority were likely to develop which could affect their motivation to learn. It was harmful to white children because it perpetuated the belief that blacks were inferior to whites. The commission condemned "slum schools" as "failure factories," noting that these schools suffered from a declining tax base due to the middle-class flight to the suburbs, that less money was spent on black children compared to other students, that the least competent teachers, with the largest teaching loads, taught in overcrowded classrooms, and that the curricula was usually inappropriate and inadequate. The commission also concluded that the longer a black child remained in school, the lower the child's achievement in reading, mathematics, and IQ scores. Statistics revealed the average twelfth grade black student was three and a half years behind other students of the same age in reading, writing, and math skills.[13]

Regardless of the laws and statistics, segregation in

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[13]Ebony Pictorial History of Black America: Civil Rights Movement to Black Revolution, Volume 3; edited by editors of Ebony (Chicago: Johnson Publishing Company, 1971), 129-130.

Chicago's schools still existed. Chicago, like many other cities in northern states, used "de facto" segregation by means of residential segregation. Herrick states:

> In every large city most Negro children went to school only with Negro children. In Chicago, segregation was particularly disturbing because it was not accepted that the city had a higher degree of residential Negro segregation than any other large Northern city. The expert research department of the Chicago Urban League analyzed the expenditures of individual schools and established beyond question that the segregated Negro schools were actually getting less in school funds per child than those in more prosperous white areas.[14]

Herrick goes on to state that the schools for the Negro children had low percentages of highly paid experienced teachers, but high percentages of low paid substitutes. Also considerable overcrowding existed. The average class size was 32 in white schools, however, class size averaged 40 students per room in Negro schools. This situation was just the reverse of what was needed to provide an effective instructional program, especially in reading, for many Negro students. As stated in Chapter 3, a large number of these students had transferred from southern schools where they had received the minimum exposure to learning skills. Therefore, due to circumstances beyond their control, these students came into the Chicago public schools with numerous learning deficiencies and cultural disadvantages. They, more than other students, needed the smaller class sizes and experienced teachers who were capable of

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[14]Mary J. Herrick, The Chicago Schools: A Social and Political History (Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications Inc., 1971), 311.

recognizing and addressing the unique learning and social problems of these students. Students who had difficulties with reading and writing skills required not only a good instructional program, but also good instructors who knew and understood how to teach, what to teach, when to teach, and whom to teach. Continuity and consistency were also essential in teaching low yield students; classrooms with substitutes were not guaranteed the same teacher for the entire year, or even for a semester. These conditions placed or kept the Negro students in the same "no learning situation" that they had experienced in schools in the south.

Dr. Benjamin Coopage Willis, superintendent of Chicago Public Schools, was uncooperative in attempts by black parents and white community leaders to integrate the school system, equalize the numbers of students in schools, and improve the quality of education for minority students. His answer to the problems cited was to build more schools. Negro parents felt that this construction of new schools in black areas was a way to perpetuate segregation--to keep black students in black neighborhood schools rather than allow them to transfer to less crowded schools in white areas. When money for new construction was no longer available, portable buildings, with a seating capacity for thirty students, were placed in Negro neighborhoods to ease the increase of the black student population. These buildings were called "Willis wagons" and their presence was met

with hostility and resentment. Parents staged sit-ins at the Board of Education and picketed sites of the portable classrooms, the Board of Education, City Hall, and homes of Board members, the superintendent, and the mayor.

The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (N.A.A.C.P.), other Negro organizations, and newspapers demanded the dismissal of Dr. Willis. He firmly felt it was not the schools' responsibility to create an integrated city. He opposed busing, which was being used in several other large northern cities to facilitate integregation, considering it to be an improper use of educational monies. He also believed that the established pattern of children attending schools in their own neighborhoods should not be changed. He apparently did not see the problem as others did. Herrick writes:

> The extent of segregation in Chicago schools was clearly stated. Of 148,000 Negro elementary students, 90 percent were in schools at least 90 percent Negro, and 10 percent in integrated or 90-percent white schools. Of 17,000 Negro students in upper grade centers, 97 percent were in Negro schools. Sixty-three percent of the 36,000 Negro general high school students and 45 percent of the 7,000 Negro vocational students were in all-black schools.
>
> Forty percent of the Negro schools had an average of more than 35 students per classroom as compared with 12 percent of white schools. The citywide average was 32.5. Five of the 8 Negro high schools had enrollments 50 percent over capacity, but only four of the twenty-six white high schools. The median dropout rate for Negro high schools was 9 percent, for white 4.2 percent. But almost 82,000 Negro children were in buildings constructed since 1951, as compared with 28,000 in white schools, and 9,500 in integrated buildings. Seventy-three percent of the 215 mobile classrooms were in use

in Negro schools.[15]

As a result of Dr. Willis's refusals to exhibit any movements toward attempting integration of the public schools, law suits were filed against the Board of Education on the grounds of discrimination in educational opportunities.

Advocates for integration were not limited to blacks. In 1961 the House of Representatives of the Chicago Teachers Union made a pledge to work for integration within the system as a means of equalizing educational opportunity. This body also issued a statement disclaiming the neighborhood school policy as an excuse for segregating children. The Citizens School Committee pushed for an independent survey of the system and special aid for all economically underprivileged children. Similar actions and positions were taken by the Chicago Region of the Parents/Teachers Association (P.T.A.)

In 1964 two surveys, which had been requested and authorized by the Board, were released. One was the Hauser Report, which described the negative impact of segregation on the quality of education in Chicago schools. This report had been prepared by Dr. Philip Hauser, who was head of the sociology department of the University of Chicago, Dr. Sterling McMurrin, former U.S. Commissioner of Education, the president of Howard University, the assistant program

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[15]Ibid., 321.

director of education for the Ford Foundation, and a professor of education from Stanford University. The basis for establishing the panel was clearly stated in the report's resolution:

> WHEREAS, Without design on the part of the Board of Education or the school administration, there are schools under the jurisdiction of the Board which are attended entirely or predominantly by Negroes; and
>
> WHEREAS, There exists public controversy as to the racial composition of such schools, and the psychological, emotional, and social influences that may be brought to bear on the pupils in such schools and any harmful effects thereof on educational processes; and
>
> WHEREAS, Some experts in the fields of education and the social sciences believe that certain educational, psychological, and emotional problems arise out of attendance of children at entirely or predominantly Negro schools...[16]

The Hauser Report's observations on the effects of de facto segregation were substantiated by the achievement scores, specifically those in reading. Although the report cautions that the tests were not culture-free, the reading scores provided a comparison between white and Negro schools. The results from the Metropolitan Achievement Test, which was administered in 1963, follow:

Table H-3. Elementary Achievement, Grade 6, 1963*

Racial Composition	% Negro+	Test 1 Word Meaning	Test 2 Reading	Test 6 Arithmetic	Test 8 Social Studies	Test 10 Science
	0.0	8.7	7.7	7.6	8.0	7.5

[16]Phillip M. Hauser, Sterling M. McMurrin, James M. Nabrit, Jr., Lester W. Nelson, and William R. Odell, Integration of the Public Schools--Chicago: Report to the Board of Education, City of Chicago, by the Advisory Panel on Integration of the Public Schools, March 31, 1964 (Chicago: Board of Education of the City of Chicago, 1964), vii.

Table H-3. Elementary Achievement, Grade 6, 1963*

	0.0	7.9	7.3	7.6	7.7	7.3
	0.0	6.9	6.7	7.0	6.7	6.8
White	1.7	7.1	6.9	7.4	6.9	7.0
Districts	0.0	7.3	7.0	7.4	6.9	7.0
Racial Composition	Test 1 Word % Negro+	Test 2 Meaning	Test 6 Arith- Reading	Test 8 Social metic	Test 10 Studies	Science
	1.6	6.5	6.2	7.3	6.5	6.6
	6.0	7.6	7.2	7.5	7.1	7.1
	3.7	5.9	5.8	6.9	5.8	6.0
	6.0	7.2	7.0	7.5	7.0	6.9
	38.0	6.6	6.5	7.2	6.3	6.6
	48.5	5.4	5.2	6.5	5.2	5.7
Mixed	49.5	5.1	5.1	6.2	5.2	5.5
Districts	68.5	5.6	5.4	6.7	5.6	5.7
	80.0	4.7	4.7	6.0	4.9	5.2
	83.1	4.8	4.9	6.1	4.9	5.3
	83.5	5.6	5.3	6.5	5.3	5.7
	99	6.1	6.1	6.8	6.2	6.1
Negro	99	5.1	5.0	6.1	5.0	5.4
Districts	100	4.9	4.9	6.2	4.7	5.4
	100	4.7	5.0	6.1	5.0	5.4
	100	5.3	5.3	6.3	5.2	5.5
City Median		6.0	5.8	6.8	5.9	6.0
Median, White Districts		7.2	7.0	7.4	6.9	7.0
Median, Mixed Districts		5.4	5.4	6.5	5.2	5.7
Median, Negro Districts		5.1	5.0	6.2	5.0	5.4
Difference, White Minus Negro		2.1	2.0	1.2	1.9	1.6 [17]

*Scores from Metropolitan Achievement Test administered in Spring, 1963.

+Percentage Negro is for the appropriate grade level and does not equal the percentage for the entire district.

Many factors influence the learning process; and one perti-

[17] Ibid., 83.

ent factor is exposure to and interaction with others, which was what the report was advocating. The Hauser Report also commented on the impact of the neighborhood school concept on the ethnicity, culture, and intellectual growth of the immigrant Negro. The second report was done by Dr. Robert J. Havighurst, also from the University of Chicago. His study included the entire Chicago school system in which integration was seen as one major solution to the system's problems. Among the many recommendations made in Havighurst's report was the addition of specialists to help local schools adapt the curriculum and materials to their children.[18]

The conflict of integration of the Chicago Public Schools continued until Dr. Willis finally resigned in May, 1966. His successor, Dr. James F. Redmond, inherited a system in which the number of migrants from the south had doubled; the problem of segregated schools had tripled; and the frustrations of parents, teachers, and school officials were unmeasurable. Black parents were now demanding more than classroom seats in white schools, more than better instruction in the basic skills, and more than full integration. They wanted their children taught about their African heritage, taught about the many contributions made

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[18]Robert J. Havighurst, The Public Schools of Chicago: A Survey for the Board of Education of the City of Chicago (Chicago: Board of Education of the City of Chicago, 1964), 323-328.

by blacks throughout history, taught that they were not inferior, and taught that they had something of which to be proud. The parents' demands for increased instruction in black history and black contributions revealed another problem, the lack of adequate instructional materials in this area. In the Report of the President's Commission on Civil Disorders, the problems that existed with instructional materials and textbooks were well noted:

> The quality of education offered by ghetto schools is diminished by use of curricula and materials poorly adapted to the life-experiences of the students. Designed to serve a middle-class culture, much educational material appears irrelevant to the youth of the racial and economic ghetto. Until recently, few texts featured any Negro personalities. Few books used or courses offered (related) the harsh realities of Negroes to the country's culture and history. This failure to include materials relevant to their own environment has made students skeptical about the utility of what they are being taught. Reduced motivation to learn results.[19]

The various publishing companies, ever ready to meet whatever needs existed, especially when a profit was involved, began to publish what they considered or called "multi-ethnic" textbooks, which meant that the books contained pictures of blacks. The middle-class concepts and speech patterns remained the same. Their methods did not deceive everyone, as the following report indicates:

> In April 1969 members of the College Language Association issued a statement condemning the publishing industry for hastily producing books, especially textbooks, simply to cash in on the growing need for multi-

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[19] International Library of Negro Life and History, 1970 Year Book: Events of 1969 (New York: Publishers Company, Inc., 1970), 200.

> ethnic materials. As a result, the members charged, many of the multi-ethnic publications have suffered in quality. The Association's "Interracial Books for Children" recommends that black men and women of various talents and experiences be used to enhance the quality of new materials. Many publishers have been attacked because they published hastily-assembled multi-racial textbooks for specific school districts and continued to print the standard edition for the majority of the Southern school districts.[20]

Robert McNamara, Jr., of Scott, Foresman and Company, said in defense of the industry that there was a "fear that if a company lined itself up on the side of fair treatment of minorities, none of its books would be purchased in the very large geographical area" of the South. McNamara felt this was the reason for publishers not producing adequate material about minorities over the years.

This plight of not having good multi-ethnic materials did not deter blacks from their determined goal of obtaining consideration, recognition, and respect for their race. The word "Negro" was discarded by the majority of blacks because they felt it had slave connotations associated with it. The identifying terms "Afro-American" and "black," which better denoted the ethnicity and history of the race, replaced the racially identifiable term of "negro." The parents also demanded more black teachers and black administrators for their schools. It was during this period that Superintendent Redmond appointed Dr. Manford Byrd, Jr., as the first

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[20]Ibid., 201.

black deputy superintendent in the history of the system.[21] However, some of the other pressing problems facing Dr. Redmond were: providing a curriculum that was relevant to all the students, having effective textbooks and materials that were meaningful as well as appropriate, and initiating an instructional program that would teach these "unique" students how to read.

Impact on the Curriculum

The civil rights movement and the extensive influx of thousands of under-educated migrants into the schools combined to force the Chicago school system to re-evaluate its curriculum, textbooks, and other teaching materials. Teachers' perceptions, low test scores, low achievement levels, and student failures proved Robert J. Havighurst's observation accurate, that "tried and true traditional approaches were not working in Chicago," especially for the culturally disadvantaged students. In addition, the schools had the problem of the students' mobility with which to cope. Not only did the students move in and out of communities and school districts, but they moved within the districts as well. It was not uncommon for children to transfer into a

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[21] International Library of Negro Life and History in Black America, 1968: The Year of Awakening, edited by Patricia W. Romero (New York: Publishers Company, Inc., 1969), 94.

school, transfer out, and then back to that same school. One school, in one year's time, experienced almost 2,000 transfers in and out in two months which averaged out to 50 transfers of students per day. Another district had almost 9,000 transfers in and out during a five-month period.[22] Table 5 shows additional data on transfers. This constant movement from school to school necessitated the uniformity of the curriculum.

TABLE 5
FIVE-MONTH CUMULATION OF TRANSFERS IN AND OUT BY NINE SELECTED DISTRICTS

District Code	Sept. 62 Number	Jan. 63 %
A	5938	33.1
B	5465	36.2
C	17077	60.1
D	9261	36.4
E	10262	39.3
F	2788	17.2
G	8371	43.3
H	7202	44.1
I	7462	43.4

The above data refer only to district totals. Examination of the mobility in each school in these districts shows a great range. For the first semester of 1962-63, one school had a mobility rate of 110.6 percent as contrasted with the other extreme of 4.8 percent.

The mobility of such large numbers of children presents two problems: the assimilation of these pupils in their new environment and the constant readjustment of pupil activities to accommodate the many different individuals

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[22]Board of Education of the City of Chicago, We Build: Ten Years of Growing, 1953-63, Annual Report of the General Superintendent of Schools (Chicago: Board of Education of the City of Chicago, 1964), 5.

who, during a semester, compose a class.[23]

The need for more realistic and relevant instructional materials for these children was obvious. Weaknesses in their prior learning, social experiences, vocabulary development, and cultural exposures made it imperative that instructional strategies and instructional materials were meaningful, clear, concise, and effective. Many of the instructional practices and materials currently in use did not meet these criteria. To address the problem of providing effective instruction, providing for changing needs, and providing up-to-date content materials for those students who were culturally and socially deprived, curriculum guides were reviewed and evaluated by teachers every four years. If these guides were determined as not meeting the needs of the students and teachers, they were rewritten in an effort to correct the deficiencies.

Guides were available in the subject areas of language arts, social studies, mathematics, science, foreign languages, art, music, health and physical education, and practical arts. Language arts, which included listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills, was considered one of the most essential segments of the educational program because it was the fundamental basis of communication. These four

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[23] Education in the Intermediate and Upper Grades in the Chicago Public Schools, Study Report Number Six, 1964 Series, (Chicago: Board of Education of the City of Chicago, August 1964), 8.

skills were interrelated and provided the students with the opportunities of expressing themselves, releasing inner emotions and feeling, and developing confidence, positive personalities, and creativity. These skills also aided the students in appreciating the beauty and culture in their environment and made them more aware of their surrounding world. With language arts, a structure and framework existed which provided the teacher a foundation on which to build a program that, hopefully, suited the needs of each student. The language arts were allotted the largest block of time, especially at the primary level, in the instructional day. Out of 1,575 minutes allocated per week, 850 to 900 minutes were devoted to language arts in the first grade; 800 to 865, in second grade; and 625 to 700, at the third grade level. Of the four strands, reading was the one emphasized throughout all the elementary grades.

As in the past, committees composed of teachers, principals, and consultants were appointed to evaluate textbooks and other instructional materials. The multiple-adoption system, which contained a maximum of six basic texts per grade or subject area, remained in effect. Individual schools were still allowed the freedom of selecting materials based on their instructional needs. They had over 30,000 instructional items from which to choose.

Included in this extensive list were basic, auxiliary, and resource texts; work materials; manipulative devices;

pre-recorded materials; and programmed texts.[24]

In further attempts to meet the individual needs of all students, the Board investigated numerous educational plans and had tried some of them. They found the "Nongraded School," also referred to as the "Continuous Development Plan," to be the most effective. In his survey of the public schools, Havighurst felt this plan was "the single most important change in the elementary schools during the past decade." Under this program, students were grouped according to their level of reading readiness or reading proficiency during the primary grades, and age factor was not a consideration. Promotion from one group to another could occur at any time during the school year, whenever the students' academic performance indicated, through testing and other evaluative procedures, that they were ready to progress to the next level. Continuous progress eliminated the pressure factor of teachers and students having to complete a designated amount of work or go through a number of basal readers within an established time period during the school year. It allowed for students to learn at their own rate. A system of achievement grades replaced the system of chronological age-based grades; in other words, instead of there being three age-based grades at the primary level, namely

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[24]Education in the Intermediate and Upper Grades in the Chicago Public Schools, Study Report Number Six, 1964 Series (Chicago: Board of Education of the City of Chicago, 1963), 19-26.

first, second, and third, eight achievement grades existed. Seemingly, most students took three years to progress from the first to the fourth grade; however, some did it in two years.

Regardless of the amount of time it took, there was no failure during the first four years of primary school and students were not retained at the primary level for more than one additional year. Levels were separate for reading and arithmetic--a child could be at Level A in reading and Level G in arithmetic.[25]

The continuous development program was not viewed as "the answer" by everyone. Many parents and students had difficulty in understanding the achievement levels and parents often inquired as to the actual grade level of their child. Nevertheless, the program seemed to "buy some catch up time" for those students who needed extra help and special instruction in the area of reading.

The Reading Curriculum

There is no debate that teaching children to read is the principal goal and responsibility of the school. Reading has often been referred to as the foundation or the cornerstone of education. As pointed out previously, the teaching of reading occupies more instructional time in min-

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[25]Robert J. Havighurst, The Public Schools of Chicago: A Survey for the Board of Education of the City of Chicago (Chicago: Board of Education of the City of Chicago, 1964), 178.

utes per week than any other subject. At the primary level, it is the major source of concentration by teachers; at the intermediate, upper grade, and high school levels teachers complain that their most difficult teaching task is that of trying to teach children who have a reading problem. However, there is controversy as to how this goal should be accomplished and what is needed to accomplish it.

Reading, being the complex skill that it is, poses a problem as to the best method or approach to use in order to teach it. When Chicago selected the continuous development program, it was felt this was the best approach to the effective teaching of reading. This program utilized several strategies to accommodate the different strengths, weaknesses, experiences, and needs of the diverse population of students. It was a program developmentally and sequentially planned for students from kindergarten to eighth grade.

At the kindergarten level the objectives were to develop positive attitudes toward reading, foster an understanding of word meanings and language patterns, and create an understanding of their relationship to the printed page. Various experiences were provided to allow the children opportunities to learn skills in listening, following directions, distinguishing sounds around them, observing likenesses and differences, using language for communication, and reading and sharing books. The curriculum guide listed the following objectives:

- acquire readiness through development of experiential background
- develop visual and auditory discrimination
- learn to associate meaning with the printed page
- learn to recognize personal experiences in visual materials
- become aware of parts of a book
- become acquainted with the picture dictionary
- obtain information from illustrations
- learn to associate meanings with symbols in simple maps, graphs, charts, and globes

The intermediate and upper levels' objectives included the following:

- awaken interest in reading
- develop word perception skills
- develop comprehension skills
- develop interpretation skills
- develop study skills
- develop ability to read orally and silently
- develop appreciation of good literature.[26]

A combination of strategies, methods, and approaches were used in teaching the reading skills. Generally phonics were heavily relied upon as the most effective method at the primary level; however, the "look-say," or word recognition method, was used in conjunction with the phonetic approach. For those students in need of remedial help in learning to read, teachers grouped homogeneously. Students with very severe reading deficiencies were taught in very small groups using a variety of instructional methods. After-school reading classes were also available. These classes were for students who did not have any learning disabilities and who were in the normal intelligence range, but were one semester

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[26] Curriculum Guides for the Language Arts, Kindergarten and Grades 1 through 8 (Chicago: Board of Education of the City of Chicago, 1966), 109-11.

behind grade level. It was felt that these students would benefit from a short, intensified, small group instructional setting. The classes met twice a week, after school from 3:15 to 4:00 p.m; students from grades 3 to 8 were allowed to participate. Class size ranged from 15 to 20 students; this restrictive number afforded the teachers an opportunity to give more individualized attention and instruction to the students. The after-school program was started in 1962, in 60 schools, with 300 classes, and 5,400 students, and was in session for four weeks. By 1964, the program had been expanded to ten weeks, 178 schools, and 1,162 classes, and was servicing approximately 20,000 students. The classes were distributed among 18 of the 21 districts, with many of them located in the crucial areas that had a high rate of student mobility and a large percentage of culturally disadvantaged children.[27]

Reading Texts

A successful reading program requires appropriate and relevant instructional materials as well as sound, solid, and effective instructional strategies. The Board also recognized the importance of adequate reading texts and materials. Therefore, it was the responsibility of the

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[27] Education in the Intermediate and Upper Grades in the Chicago Public Schools, Study Report Number Six, 1964 Series (Chicago: Board of Education of the City of Chicago, 1963), 26-27.

Bureau of Instructional Materials to evaluate and recommend the textbooks and other related materials to be used in teaching the curriculum of the Chicago Public Schools. This evaluation, as mentioned before, was done every four years to insure that the books approved and purchased were current in information, methods, and concepts. The philosophy of the Bureau of Instructional Materials was as follows:

> The Chicago public schools recognize the responsibility to provide the opportunity for each student to learn and to develop to his maximum potential and needs. The dignity of each individual is basic to our democratic principles. Equally significant is the responsibility of each school to generate understanding and appreciation of the American heritage, the American way of life, and the American freedoms. It follows that there must be provision of instructional materials that meet the diverse needs of individual students in a democratic learning environment.[28]

The responsibilities of the Bureau included providing a wide variety of instructional materials that would support and enrich the curriculum, in addition to motivating the interests, abilities, and maturity levels of the students in keeping with concern for their individual differences. The Bureau was also responsible for providing materials which were representative of the diverse races, cultures, religions, and various ethnic groups that made up the public school system.

In its selection of texts, especially basal readers, special attention was given to the way in which racial, cultural, and ethnic issues were handled and included. Prior

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[28]Ibid., 43-44.

to the 1960s, the basal readers primarily represented white, middle-class role models and situations. With the advent of the civil rights movement, publishers became more sensitive and responsive to the demands that minority groups be represented. Although many of the changes in the books were of a cosmetic nature only, at least children of black, Indian, and Asian descent could see examples of children like themselves and better relate to the stories. For example, in the 1963 version of the basal reader More Friends Old and New, published by Scott, Foresman and Company, the cover of the book contains a picture of three children, all of whom are white; on page 14 is the story titled "Tommy's Valentines" which again depicts a white family. In the 1965 version of the same basal reader, the cover contains a different picture of children who represent various ethnic groups; the story on page 14 is basically the same, but the title has been changed to "All Kinds of Valentines," and the family is now black.[29]

In another basal reader, Town and Country, published in 1986, attention is given to a different culture; part of the text reads as follows:

> "How about egg drop soup, fried rice, butterfly shrimp, tea?" Matt and Ben looked at their uncle in surprise. "Wow, that is really a funny-sounding dinner," said Ben.
>
> "This is a Chinese restaurant, Ben," said Aunt May. "I think you'll like their food. It will be fun to try to

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[29]Helen M. Robinson, Marion Monroe, A. Sterl Artley, Charlotte S. Huck, and William Jenkins, More Friends Old and New (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1965).

> eat with chopsticks, too." "What are chopsticks?" asked Matt.
>
> "There they are in front of you. Do you see those two sticks? The Chinese use two little sticks instead of a fork to pick up their food," said Uncle Jack.[30]

A cursory review of the table of contents of another basal reader on the approved list demonstrates the impact of the social and racial changes that occurred during this decade. Stories about minorities and other ethnic groups, as well as by minority authors were being included. The table of contents included the following listings:

> Caleb and Me, by James Baldwin
> Welcome, Welcome Emigrante
> Puerto Rican Paradise
> American's Greatest Athlete: Jim Thorpe
> Chinese Wisdom
> The Holy Man and the Burglar: A Turkish Tale
> Refugee in America, by Langston Hughes
> Will Stockdale Takes Over, by Ira Levin
> Be Pure and Dare, by D.G. Hammarskold
> Higher Mathematics in Helm: A Jewish Tale
> There Was an Athletic Young Miss
> A Witty Answer: A Russian Tale[31]

These title listings represented progress in the attempts by some textbook publishers to have some good multiethnic reading materials that were truly representative of the different cultures and ethnic groups. By including stories about blacks, written by blacks, the textbooks had more than the

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[30]William D. Sheldon and Mary C. Austin, Town and Country (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1968), 34-35.

[31]Walter B. Oliver, Irene Willis, and Richard E. Willis, New Worlds of Reading (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1969), Table of Contents, iii.

"cosmetic" appearance of being multiethnic, as did earlier published materials. These titles were also an indication that the acknowledgement and recognition of the significant contributions of other racial and ethnic groups were finally becoming a reality.

Women and their roles were also depicted in a more favorable light as evidenced in the following passage:

> Lucy came running up to them. "Madge! What's happened?"
>
> "Madge hurt her ankle," said Roger.
>
> Lucy and Roger helped Madge hop to the porch.
>
> "Madge, you are lucky," said Lucy. "Roger's mother is a doctor. She is here for the weekend."
>
> "What is the matter?" cried Lucy's mother.
>
> "I fell off my bike," said Madge as she hopped to a chair.
>
> "This is my mother, Doctor Lodge," said Roger.
>
> Doctor Lodge pulled off Madge's shoe and sock. She gently moved Madge's toes up and down. That didn't hurt, but when Doctor Lodge moved her ankle, Madge felt the pain again.
>
> "It's not very bad," said Doctor Lodge at last. "Just a sprain." Then she carefully put a bandage on the damaged ankle.
>
> "I will drive Madge home," said Doctor Lodge.
>
> On the way home Madge asked, "Is it very hard to become a doctor?"
>
> "Yes, you have to work hard to become a doctor and even harder when you are a doctor."
>
> "I want to be a doctor when I'm older," said Madge.
>
> "I think you can do it, Madge, if you really want to," said Doctor Lodge. "In my judgment it can be very exciting work."

> Madge remembered that today she had wanted to do something exciting.[32]

The home was no longer the only place where women should be, and baking cookies was not the only activity they were capable of performing. The Chicago public school system was indeed reflecting the society around it.

As indicated in Table 4, blacks were not the only racial group in the low-income, low-educated status; however, they were the major group who had the most influence in getting the public schools to recognize the fact that their children had special problems that, therefore, demanded special attention. They were the only minority group of the sixties who were persistent in pursuing the same educational opportunities for their children as the majority had. They, with the help of other support groups, paved the way, opened the doors, and set the example for other multiethnic or multicultural groups to follow as they also struggled to ensure an adequate and equal system of educational opportunities for their children. These groups also faced an uphill battle in trying to accomplish this goal. The problem of a language barrier, in addition to cultural differences, beliefs, and social practices, increased the difficulty of addressing the needs of these culturally-different children and teaching them the abstract skills of learning to read.

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[32]Glenn McCracken and Charles C. Walcutt, Basic Reading, Book C (Philadelphia: J.B. Lippincott Company, 1969), 94-96.

CHAPTER V

THE READING PROGRAM: 1970-1980

The 1960s can be categorized as that period when blacks demanded, fought for, and obtained recognition, civil rights, and some movement towards integration in employment, housing, and education. The decade of the 1970s can be considered the period in which other ethnic and cultural groups also demanded recognition by society and the schools. The successful push for civil rights and equal treatment in the 1960s by blacks provided the impetus for other groups to seek similar benefits as regards political, economic, social, and educational institutions.

The United States, in spite of strict immigration rules, has always had the reputation of being a nation that invited and welcomed newcomers (the "right" newcomers). Immigrants have had a proud tradition of coming to America, building a good life for themselves and their families, and aiding in making and keeping America the democratic nation it is today. During the 1970s and in the 1980s, immigrants came from regions of the globe much different from the areas where the early immigrants had their origins. Between 1890 and 1917, the great majority of immigrants came from southern, central, and eastern Europe. However, in the early 1970s the events surrounding the Viet Nam war caused

hundreds of thousands of Asians to flee their countries, especially Viet Nam, Laos, and Cambodia, to seek asylum in the United States. Political upheavals in Cuba, Haiti, and Nicaragua forced thousands of refugees to leave their countries and come to America. Poverty drove many from Mexico and other Central and South American countries to this country. Additionally, for different reasons, Chinese and Japanese continued to immigrate to the United States and contributed to the numbers. America, therefore, continued to be home to a vast population of citizens who represented diverse ethnic and cultural groups. These immigrants generally located in large cities, including Chicago. As a consequence of this great influx of different ethnic and language groups and in an attempt to recognize, identify, and address their presence, terms such as bilingual education, cultural pluralism, and multi-ethnic and multicultural education became an integral part of society's vocabulary. These terms and the concepts conveyed by them presented new challenges to society and more specifically to the schools.

Multiethnic-Multicultural Education: Definitions and Concepts

The first challenge was that of defining the terms multiethnic and multicultural and ensuring that people, especially those in professional education, understood the meaning and the difference between the two. The development of the concepts related to these terms was another task

which demanded attention. The understanding of the two terms and the development of concepts was essential if teachers were to effectively implement instructional programs to address the needs of students who were members of new immigrant groups. Unfortunately, precise definitions were not readily available; educators, seemingly, were unable to come to a consensus on the appropriate terminology. James A. Banks of the University of Washington, who has done extensive research and writing in this area, defined multiethnic education in the following manner:

> We can derive the social science meaning of multiethnic education by first defining an ethnic group, since ethnic is the root of multiethnic education. An ethnic group is a group which has an ancestral tradition and whose members share a sense of peoplehood and an interdependence of fate. It has some distinguishing value orientations, behavioral patterns, and interests (often political and economic). It is an involuntary group, although individual identification with the group may be optional. Membership in the group is influenced by how members define themselves and how they are defined by others. In summary, an ethnic group is an involuntary group which shares a heritage, kinship ties, a sense of identification, political and economic interests, and cultural and linguistic characteristics. Multiethnic education implies a kind of education which is related in some way to a range of ethnic groups. Multiethnic education is also a form of multicultural education since an ethnic group is one kind of cultural group. Multiethnic education should help students develop the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and abilities needed to relate to a range of ethnic groups and to function in society.[1]

Banks goes on to define multicultural education as "a type of education that is related in some way to a range of

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[1]James A. Banks, The Journal of Negro Education, vol. xlvii, no. 3 (1979): 237-239.

cultural groups, as culture is the root of multicultural."[2] He states that the concept itself implies little more than education related to many cultures. He feels that multicultural education should enable students to acquire knowledge about the different cultural groups and aid them in developing attitudes, skills, and abilities necessary to live and work in the many different cultural environments, which include social class, regional, and religious cultures, as well as national ones.[3]

In 1972, in addressing the issue of multicultural education, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) developed a statement titled "No One Model American," which stated:

> Multicultural education is education which values cultural pluralism. Multicultural education rejects the view that schools should seek to melt away cultural differences or the view that schools should merely tolerate cultural pluralism. Instead, multicultural education affirms that schools should be oriented toward the cultural enrichment of all children and youth through programs rooted to the preservation and extension of cultural diversity as a fact of life in American society, and it affirms that this cultural diversity is a valuable resource that should be preserved and extended. It affirms that major education institutions should strive to preserve and enhance cultural pluralism.
>
> Education for cultural pluralism includes four major thrusts: (1) the teaching of values which support cultural diversity and individual uniqueness; (2) the encouragement of the qualitative expansion of existing ethnic cultures and their incorporation into the mainstream of American socioeconomic and political life; (3)

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[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid.

> the support of explorations in alternative and emerging life styles; and (4) the encouragement of multiculturalism, multilingualism, and multidialectism. Multicultural education reaches beyond awareness and understanding of cultural differences. More important than the acceptance and support of these differences is the recognition of the right of these different cultures to exist. The goal of cultural pluralism can be achieved only if there is full recognition of cultural differences and an effective educational program that makes cultural equality real and meaningful.[4]

These definitions, concepts, and goals are representative of similar efforts by sociologists and educators to ensure some continuity in implementing a program of multiethnic-multicultural education.

The Chicago public school system in 1970 had not fully resolved nor recovered from the task of coping with the civil rights movement and the demands of blacks for a more relevant curriculum and a more sensitive school board. However, it now had the added responsibility of providing equality of educational services for this new multiethnic-multicultural population.

As discussed in Chapter 4, according to some sociologists, many black students had problems learning as a result of being from socio-cultural backgrounds that differed from the dominant school culture. In addition, a growing population of non-English language background students presented new educational challenges for the Chicago Board of Education as it tried to fulfill its commitment to

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[4]William A. Hunter, ed., Multicultural Education through Competency-Based Teacher Education (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1974), 21-23.

educate all students. These challenges included socio-economic, cultural, and religious differences and, primarily, a language issue. Regardless of these problems, the school system was still responsible to find methods by which these children could be taught. Following the example set by blacks, the parents of these students were determined to hold the schools to that responsibility. They demanded not only that their children be educated, but also that their children's cultural and religious backgrounds and beliefs remain an integral part of that education. The parents wanted their children to learn American ways, go to American schools, learn the English language, and become American citizens. However, they also wanted their children to maintain their own native languages and customs; they sought biculturalism rather than total assimilation. They were determined that history would not repeat itself, that their children would not be forced to give up their identity as their ancestors had been encouraged, or in most instances, compelled to do.

A Short History of Multiethnic and Multicultural Education

From the first day that the first pilgrim set foot on the shores of America, this country has been home to millions of immigrants. Before 1890 the majority of immigrants were Europeans who came from places located in northern and western Europe, which included Great Britain, Germany, Scandinavia, and Switzerland. Out of this group, the

English emerged as the dominating ethnic and language group. By the 1770s, the English dominated social, economic, and political life in North America. Around 1890, a large new wave of immigrants from southern, central, and eastern Europe began to arrive in America and a peculiar class system began to develop between the "old" established immigrants from northern and western Europe and the "new" immigrants from southern, central, and eastern Europe.

The earlier immigrants from the British Isles and northern Europe ceased to perceive themselves as immigrants and instead regarded their status as the "rightful inhabitants" of America. They viewed the new immigrants as an unwanted threat to the established American social and political traditions. Many negative connotations were conected with this group and offensive insinuations and accusations were unfairly directed toward the new immigrants. An outcome of these biased attitudes was the creation of a movement called nativism, whose main objective was that of preventing the entrance of new, additional immigrants into the United States. The nativists called attention to the social and religious differences between the two groups; for example, that the new immigrants were primarily Catholics, while the earlier immigrants with the exception of the Irish were mainly Protestants. A strong campaign of anti-Catholicism became one of the banners of the nativistic movement. The competition for jobs widened the gap between the groups

even further.

Near the turn of the century, nearly all foreigners, including immigrants, were treated with suspicion and distrust. The onset of World War I in 1914 did little to alleviate the problem; if anything, it added fuel to the fire and the distrust, dislike, and prejudices greatly increased and strengthened nativistic feelings. The nativists now advocated "America for Americans" and pushed for one hundred percent Americanism in every facet of life in the United States. Efforts by the new immigrants to prove their loyalty to their new country were generally ignored and rejected. Needless to say, it was very unpopular to express any feelings of love or longing for "the old country." The new immigrants dared not exhibit any pride or connection with their former homelands. As stated many times, schools are a reflection of society; therefore, as expected, the American public schools, colleges, and universities promoted the tenets of Americanization and unquestionable, blind loyalty to the United States.

During World War I, the teaching of German was forbidden in many states. German books were burned, and some schools went to such extremes as prohibiting the playing of music by German composers in music classes and during school assemblies. In some areas of the country, this purge of German ideals and culture extended to even the foods; for example sauerkraut was changed to "sour cabbage" and frankfurters were called "hot dogs."

In addition to teaching students the basic skills of education, the schools had as a major goal to strip the various ethnic groups of their ethnicity and replace it with Anglo-Saxon values, beliefs, and morals. Ellwood Patterson Cubberley, the distinguished educational leader, stated this major goal of the common schools in 1909:

> Everywhere these people (immigrants) tend to settle in groups or settlements, and to set up here their national manners, customs, and observances. Our task is to break up these groups or settlements, to assimilate and amalgamate these people as part of our American race, and to implement in their children, as fast as can be done, the Anglo-Saxon conception of righteousness, law and order, and a popular government, and to awaken in them a reverence for our democratic institutions and for those things in our national life which we as a people hold to be of abiding worth.[5]

There were those who did not agree with Cubberley and the other nativists. Philosophers and writers such as Horace Kallen, Randolph Bourne, and Julius Drachsler were strong advocates and defenders of the immigrants' rights to maintain their customs and ethnic ties. Their arguments for these rights included the "salad bowl" concept which maintained that each ethnic culture had a unique role to play and had enriching qualities to contribute to the total society.[6] Their position on this issue was referred to as "cultural pluralism."

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[5]Ellwood P. Cubberley, ed., Changing Conceptions of Education (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1909), 15-16.

[6]James A. Banks, Multiethnic Education: Theory and Practice (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1981), 7.

However, the cultural pluralists were fighting a losing battle; the push for total assimilation of immigrants and other racial and ethnic groups continued with renewed fervor by most of America's political, business, and educational leaders. Their efforts resulted in the enactment of two immigration acts. The passage of the Immigration Act of 1917 required immigrants to pass a reading test to enter the United States. This act was, of course, designed to stop the immigration of southern, central, and eastern European groups, which included Poles, Greeks, and Italians. For some nativists, the terms of this act were inadequate as far as reducing the number of immigrants entering the United States. Therefore, those seeking to restrict immigration pressed for even stricter laws and succeeded in enacting the Immigration Act of 1924, which severely limited the number of immigrants from most European nations except those from northern and western Europe. Needless to say, this brought an end to the massive European immigration to America.[7]

Under these circumstances and conditions very few ethnic groups were willing to openly exhibit any cultural pride other than that of being an American. Demands for recognition or requests for any kind of consideration for their customs or language differences in public schools were unthinkable. There were, however, a few courageous efforts

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[7]Ibid., 5.

to address this problem of cultural diversity. Nevertheless, the programs and policies concerning ethnic education were not conceived until the 1960s and 1970s.

It was at this time that it became acceptable to be proud of one's ancestry, although attempts had been made during earlier periods.

One such effort centered around the question of how American Indians should be educated. This had been an ongoing debate since the 1800s. The 1920s found the debate still unresolved, as the educational policy for the Indians vacillated between whether to allow them self-determination, demand full assimilation, or encourage cultural pluralism. In 1928 the Meriam Report[8] recommended extensive reforms in American Indian education policies. One of its recommendations was that Indian education be more closely related to the community, the building of day schools in the community, and the reformation of boarding schools, and that the curriculum taught in Indian schools be changed so as to reflect the culture and the needs of local Indians.

Efforts to improve the education for blacks were put forth by such prominent people as Carter G. Woodson, a black historian who earned a doctorate degree from Harvard, and Booker T. Washington, president of the Tuskegee Institute in Tuskegee, Alabama. Although the two men had different philosophies of education and contrasting views on the direc-

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[8]Lewis Meriam, ed., The Problem of Indian Administration (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1928).

tion of black education, they both agreed on the vital issue that blacks needed to be educated. The education of Mexican-Americans received a great deal of attention also. Very few of these endeavors had much of an impact; therefore, very little change occurred and cultural pluralism was delayed until the 1960s.[9]

The Impact of Multiethnic-Multicultural Education on the Curriculum

The cultural pluralists had some definite ideologies about American society, ethnic groups, and the impact of ethnic groups on both individuals and society. More significantly, they had some distinct ideas about the importance of ethnic groups and policies concerning the schools' curriculum.

The pluralists felt that it was the responsibility of the schools to promote the ethnicity of different groups. They also felt that ethnic minority cultures in America were not disadvantaged, socially deviant, nor intellectually deficient; but that these ethnic cultures had "unique" learning styles. These learning styles required that the curriculum and teaching strategies be adapted in order to be more compatible with the life-styles and learning styles of students from ethnic groups. Studies by such researchers as

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[9]Ibid., 607.

Ramirez and Castaneda[10] as well as Stodolsky and Lesser[11] revealed that cognitive or learning styles are, in many instances, different among ethnic groups. The pluralists, therefore, felt that the learning and adjustment problems experienced by minority students would be greatly reduced if the curriculum was revised so as to reflect their cognitive styles, cultural histories, and experiences. They wanted the learning materials for these students to be culture-specific; in addition, the pluralists had the following concepts concerning the goals of the schools:

> The major goal of the curriculum should be to help the child to function more successfully within his or her own ethnic culture. The curriculum should be structured so that it stresses events from the points of view of the specific ethnic groups. The curriculum should promote ethnic attachments and allegiances and help students to gain the skills and commitments that will enable them to help their ethnic group to gain power and to exercise it within the larger civic culture.[12]

There were those educators who disagreed with the cultural pluralists' ideas and philosophies. It was felt that their ideology was too extreme in declaring the importance of cultural differences and the need for schools and society to recognize these differences. Also, it was felt that this

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[10]Manual Ramirez III and Alfredo Castaneda, Cultural Democracy: Bicognitive Development and Education (New York: Academic Press, 1974).

[11]Susan S. Stodolsky and Gerald Lesser, "Learning Patterns in the Disadvantaged," Harvard Educational Review, 37 (Fall 1967): 546-593.

[12]James A. Banks, Multiethnic Education: Theory and Practice (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1981), 63-64.

view was too limiting; that assimilation, to some extent, had taken place within these groups; and that if it had not, it should. Therefore, it was back to the division and disagreement between the cultural pluralists and the assimilationists; the cultural pluralists advocating separatism and the assimilationists advocating total integration into "the American way of life."

The assimilationists did not deny the existence of ethnic differences; however, they viewed ethnicity and ethnic affiliations as "fleeting and temporary within an increasingly modernized world." They contended that ethnic ties tended to disappear under the influence of modernization, industrialization, and democratization in the United States. They felt that the pluralists, with their strong ethnic allegiances, erroneously promoted group rights over individual rights, denied individuals the right of choices, and promoted the harmful concept of ethnic segregation and separatism.

The assimilationists believed in the promotion of the American society and democratic ideals; they believed that everyone should be committed to becoming a part of the "common culture," which to them meant the Anglo-American culture. They felt that the learning styles of all groups were more or less universal rather than culturally-influenced as espoused by the pluralists; therefore, they believed that instructional materials need not be culture-

specific, and that the goals of the curriculum should focus on the development of a commitment by the student to learn and put into practice the ideals of the American creed. Unlike the cultural pluralists, the assimilationists did not think it necessary for minority or ethnic students to have teachers who were of the same race and ethnicity to serve as role models in order for these students to develop or maintain positive self-concepts and to be more efficient learners. They felt these objectives could be accomplished by a well-trained teacher with adequate learning theories.[13]

It was obvious that the cultural pluralists and the assimilationists were at opposite ends of the educational spectrum. The first group, if it had its way, would have had a curriculum that catered solely to the ethnic culture of the student. The second group wanted a curriculum that reflected the total Americanization of the student, with little or no regard to ethnic or cultural considerations or differences. The implementation of either of these positions in the schools would have resulted in a one-sided, one-dimensional curriculum. There was the need for an ideology that included the best ideas and tenets of the two philosophies. The multiethnic ideology seemed to best bridge that gap or serve as the middle ground or the connecting link between the two extremes.

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[13]Ibid., 64-70.

The multiethnic ideology advocated neither separatism nor total integration, but an open society of multiculturalism; also it recognized that minorities and majorities had rights, which were limited for both the individual and the group. It also stressed that the ethnic minority cultures had some "unique" cultural characteristics but, at the same time, that the minority and majority groups shared many cultural traits, values, and behavior styles. In addition, it stressed that although minorities had learning styles that were considered exclusive to their group, they also shared learning characteristics which were similar to those of other groups. In reference to the curriculum, the multiethnic ideology stated the following:

> The curriculum should respect the ethnicity of the child and make use of it in positive ways; the goal of the curriculum should be to help the child to learn how to function effectively within the common culture, his or her ethnic culture, and other ethnic cultures. Students need skilled teachers who are very knowledgeable about and sensitive to their ethnic cultures and cognitive styles.[14]

Some theorists questioned the capability of students to function within two different cultures, or their ability to make choices and decisions about the two cultures when contradictory and conflicting values, goals, and expectations emerged concerning their ethnic-cultural beliefs and practices and those of the school and/or society. The cultural pluralists would argue that the school should con-

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[14]Ibid., 69-70.

cede to the ethnicity or cultural attachments of the students; the assimilationists would argue that the students should concede to the policies, expectations, and norms of the school. However, again the multiethnic supporters took the middle ground and stated:

> Public institutions like the school can and should "allow" ethnic group members to practice their culture specific behaviors as long as they do not conflict with the major goals of the school. One of the school's major goals is to teach students how to read, to write, to compute, and to think. The school obviously cannot encourage "ethnic" behavior if it prohibits students from reading. On the other hand, some students might be able to learn to read more easily from culturally sensitive readers than from Anglo-centric reading materials like Dick and Jane.[15]

Therefore, it was within this philosophy and framework that multiethnic-multicultural education was conceived and developed. The curriculum was developed or revised so as to reflect inclusion of and consideration for the various ethnic and cultural groups. The demands of these groups that heroes and heroines of color be included in textbooks and that the history lessons give another perspective which indicated that ethnics also contributed to the winning of wars, the discoveries of lands, the medical breakthroughs, and other significant achievements led educators and curriculum writers to incorporate this information into the school's curriculum and textbooks. This period has often been referred to as "the ethnic revitalization movement."

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[15]Ibid., 72.

Textbooks and Instructional Guides

Whenever the public school seemingly fails in its task of teaching the basic skills to students, especially minority students, sociologists and psychologists are very adept at identifying different reasons or rationales for this failure. Some of the primary reasons include (1) the deprivation thesis, which is also known as blaming the client; (2) the institutional-racism thesis, or blaming the professionals; (3) the cultural-conflict thesis--blaming ethnic cultural differences; (4) the caste-structure thesis, blaming the structure of society; and (5) the class-conflict thesis, or blaming the capitalist economic system.[16]

It seems that in dealing with multiethnic-multicultural curriculum materials and textbooks, all of the above were considered as part of the reason why schools fail to teach the basic skills to students and part of the problem. However, the deprivation theory was abandoned by many educators and social scientists, and the concept that minority students' poor academic achievement was due to disadvantaged backgrounds or improverished family structures gave way to the belief that this academic failure was more the result of the conflicting expectations between the school and the home. Sociologists and researchers also came to the

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[16]Etta Ruth Hollins, "Beyond Multicultural Education," The Negro Educational Review, XXXIII (July-October 1982): 140-45.

conclusion that the schools failed to demonstrate an understanding of the cultures of minorities. William Ryan probably said it best when he wrote:

> We are dealing, it would seem, not so much with culturally deprived children as with culturally depriving schools. And the task to be accomplished is not to revise, and amend, and repair deficient children but to alter and transform the atmosphere and operations of the schools to which we commit these children. Only by changing the nature of the educational experience can we change its product. To continue to define the difficulty as inherent in the raw materials - the children - is plainly to blame the victim and to acquiesce in the continuation of educational inequity in America.[17]

The focus, therefore, changed from that of the schools placing fault with the student for not being able to learn, to examining the instructional methods and materials used to teach the student. Upon examining materials, specifically textbooks, it was found that many of these instructional texts did not address the beliefs, experiences, values, and contributions of minority cultures. In spite of the great push in the 1960s for equal treatment and civil rights, and gains in these areas by blacks, many textbook publishers still refused to acknowledge such contributions. Textbook analysts noted the following:

> In instructional materials, white textbook authors committed sins of omission and commission against Afro-Americans, that books seemed to be written exclusively for white children, and that they either ignored the creditable deeds of Afro-Americans or taught that Afro-Americans were innately inferior.

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[17]William Ryan, Blaming the Victim (New York: Pantheon, 1970), 60.

The textbook analyses that appeared from the 1930s through the 1960s reported similar results for Afro-Americans, Hispanics, Native Americans, and Asians. In fact, textbooks continued to report ethnic distortions, stereotypes, omissions, and misinformation as recently as the mid-1970s.[18]

According to Roderick, there were some textbooks, in 1970, that continued to depict Afro-Americans in a negative light such as only showing them in some type of occupational uniform or making them "a nonperson" by not giving names to them in stories.[19]

California, in 1971, assigned a state task force to review textbooks in its schools. The task force reported that the books "were ignorant of the bilingual/bilcultural realities of minority children, provided inadequate portrayals of minorities, and were written chiefly from a white middle-class point of view."[20]

Stories were written primarily by white authors who, seemingly, were unaware of or insensitive to the fact that they were writing for a population of students who were of

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[18]Ibid.

[19]Juanita Roderick, "Minority Groups in Textbooks," Improving College and University Teaching, Spring 1970, 129-32.

[20]California State Board of Education, "Task Force to Re-evaluate Social Studies Textbooks, Grades Five Through Eight," mimeographed, December 1971.

various races. For the most part, the themes of these stories centered around happy families with happy children whose biggest problem was finding a lost pet or deciding on what kind of a present to take to Ned's birthday party. These stories were used as instructional materials to teach reading skills and social studies concepts. Many minority students found it difficult to relate to this type of story because the ideas and ideals were not relevant or familiar to the students' daily life, customs, or environment. Too often these students and their families were coping with basic real-life problems such as where they were going to find an inexpensive apartment large enough for the entire family; or whose turn it was to receive new shoes, since there was not enough money to buy shoes for all the children at the same time; or how they were going to eat next week if dad did not find a job soon. The stories about pets and birthday parties were fairy tales to these children.

The following excerpt is from a social studies text that was used in the Chicago public schools with students, many of whom lived in low-income neighborhoods, in overcrowded apartment buildings that had stairs instead of elevators. Many of these children received "hand-me-downs" (clothes previously worn) from older brothers and sisters. Yet they were confronted daily with stories that were centered around middle class values, attitudes, and activities.

According to this text:

> Susan lived in an apartment house in New York City. One day her mother said "Susan, you need a warm coat for school. I saw a pretty red one in a store window in our neighborhood. Let's try to find it."
>
> They took the elevator down to the street. As they opened the door and went outside, a cold wind blew past them. They buttoned up their coats.
>
> Susan looked up toward the sky. "Look how blue the sky is today," she said.
>
> "I wish we could take a drive in the country today," said Mother. "It must be beautiful at this time of the year with the trees all red and orange and purple.[21]

In another reading passage, the targeted audience also seems to be "white and middle-class", although the books were also used in Chicago schools that had a one hundred percent black student population or a large hispanic population of students. Very little consideration was given to the fact that reading selections such as the one from which the passage below was taken had very little meaning to black or hispanic students or who were in less affluent situations. It should be no mystery, therefore, as to why these children were not interested in or could not relate to the reading materials. For example, a passage in the same text states:

> Sunny Acres is a very sunny neighborhood. The families who live in Sunny Acres like sun. They like to put on shorts and swimsuits and big straw hats and lie out in the sun and turn red and brown.[22]

Obviously some of the same problems that existed with

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[21]Lawrence Senesh, Our Working World: Neighbors at Work (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1965), 12.

[22]Ibid., 88.

the reading materials for black students, now existed for other ethnic students as well.

Regarding Native Americans, an analysis of 300 books completed by Henry concluded that out of the 300, there was not one book that would meet the criteria of being a dependable, factual source of knowledge that could be used to teach the history and culture of the Indians. She stated that most of the books "were derogatory and contained misinformation, distortions, and omissions of important history."[23] The following excerpt supports her findings:

> In common with many primitive peoples, the plains Indians drew no clear distinction between the natural and the supernatural. All aspects of the buffalo hunt were as carefully organized and skillfully managed as a modern military operation.
>
> Far from seeing himself as master of his environment, the Indian felt adrift on a vast ocean of grass, endlessly searching for the lifegiving buffalo. He believed his survival depended upon maintaining contact with supernatural powers, and he became devoted to ceremonies that brought him into partnership with the cosmos.
>
> In defeat the Indian became the "noble savage" and Custer's Last Stand will be long remembered.[24]

This passage depicts the Indian as primitive, savage, and unable to distinguish reality from fantasy or, as stated, the "natural and the supernatural." Native Americans are portrayed as aimless wanderers whose entire lives revolved

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[23]Jeannette Henry, Textbooks and the American Indian (San Francisco: Indian Historian Press, 1970), 11.

[24]John Garraty, A Study Guide, The American Nation Since 1865: A History of the United States (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1971), 10-11.

around the buffalo. Although another writer still referred to them as "savage," he at least presented the Indians in a more positive light by explaining the importance of the buffalo in their daily lives and their relationship with nature. The following passage exhibits a better understanding of some Native Americans' ways and beliefs.

> To the Indians the buffalo was the staff of life. It was their food, clothing, dwelling, tools. The needs of a savage people are not many, perhaps, but whatever the Indians of the Plains had, that the buffalo gave them. It is not strange, then, that this animal was reverenced by most Plains tribes, nor that it entered largely into their sacred ceremonies, and was in a sense worshiped by them. The Pawnees say "Through the corn and buffalo we worship the Father." The Blackfeet ask, "What one of all the animals is the most sacred?" and the reply given is "The buffalo."[25]

During the middle 1970s and into the 1980s materials of this type were replaced by reading selections and stories that were more sensitive to the various ethnic, cultural, and religious groups. The following selection is one example of how publishers began to attempt to promote understanding of different groups.

A Community in Israel

> David Samuels lives with his family in Israel. He lives in a place called Haifa.
>
> On days when there is no school, Mr. Samuels takes David to watch ships in the Haifa port. Haifa's port is big. Many ships that leave Haifa take goods to countries all over the world.
>
> Nearby there are many, many factories and businesses

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[25]Wayne Moquin and Charles Van Doren, eds., Great Documents in American Indian History (New York: Praeger Publishers, 1973), 6.

where people work. David likes to come to this part of town because the old and the new are side by side here. There are new stores, office buildings, and factories. The houses, however, are very, very old.

The streets are colorful. There are Jews in everyday dress, some wearing small caps called kepahs. Arabs with their robes floating around them go by. The robes that the Arabs of today wear are like the robes their great-grandfathers had.

On the street there are animals walking between cars and bicycles.

David goes to school near his home. It is high up on a hill. School begins at 7 in the morning and ends at 1 in the afternoon. It starts and ends early because it is too hot in the afternoon to go to school.

In school David studies mathematics, social studies, and science. He is also learning to read and write Hebrew. Hebrew is not at all like English. It is written from right to left and read in the same way. Books are read from the back to the front! Here is a sentence in Hebrew....It says, "Where is the book?"

David goes to school every day but Saturday. Saturday is called the Sabbath. It is the day of rest. No work at all is done on the Sabbath. There are no newspapers. All the stores and businesses are closed. Many, many people do not ride in cars. In many places in Israel even buses do not run. On the Sabbath, sometimes David goes swimming in the sea. Sometimes he goes to see his friends. Most of all David likes to take long walks with his mother and father.[26]

Stories such as this help to provide students with knowledge and some insight into the cultural, social, and religious practices of others. They learn that there are many differences, but also that similarities exist. In addition, having knowledge and understanding about a group

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[26]Byron H. Van Roekel and Mary Jean Kluwe, From Skyscrapers to Squirrels (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., 1973), 21-28.

of people, their customs, and life-styles helps to alleviate and dispel racial myths and biases. For example, this story brings out the fact that Jewish children have a Sabbath Day, but that it is on a Saturday rather than a Sunday as it is for many people. They learn that children in Israel have many of the same subjects, such as reading, mathematics, and science, that students in America are required to take. Therefore, when these students encounter Jewish children in their classes, they are more likely to be aware of these customs and practices and not think them odd or irreligious.

Another basal reader contained the story "My Name is Miguel," which was about a young boy of Mexican descent who was so ashamed of his Spanish-speaking parents and of his culture that he told everyone to call him "Mike" instead of his given name of Miguel. Miguel denied and disowned everything and anything that associated him with his cultural background until his teacher asked his father to help her learn to speak Spanish. As a result of his teacher's desire to learn the language and all she could about the culture, Miguel began to appreciate and understand his rich heritage.[27]

To further promote multiethnic-multicultural education, the Chicago Board of Education, in 1977, developed

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[27]Leo Fay, Ramon Royal Ross, and Margaret Lafray, The Young American Basic Reading Program (Chicago: Lyons & Carnahan, 1974), 91.

instructional guides that contained mini-units on ethnic studies. These mini-units covered what was considered the major ethnic groups in the city. The development of these guides was necessary because adequate textbooks in this area of study were unavailable. The preface of each guide contained the policy position of the Board which was stated in each guide. The following preface is from the mini-unit on Germany.

> PREFACE
>
> This unit on German American Culture continues the Policy and Purpose of the Chicago public schools to work toward providing useful materials on all cultural identities within our population. It follows the general structure and objectives of those earlier publications concerning Americans of Afro-American, American Indian, Asian, Mexican, and Puerto Rican cultural backgrounds, and the Ethnic Studies Process publication with its units on Greek, Italian, and Polish ethnic groups in America in general and in Chicago in particular. It combines a view of old world roots with new world aspirations and achievements.
>
> The mini-units are designed to give youth of a particular ethnic ancestry a positive self-image as citizens who will participate fully and loyally under our democratic, constitutional system of government. The mini-units also provide them with a properly respectfully and informed awareness of the equal dignity and value of American citizens of every other ethnic, social, or economic background of our country, regardless of race, sex, color, or creed.
>
> We hope these materials will be of help to teachers at the upper levels of the elementary schools as well as in the secondary schools as they develop understandings with their students of the culturally pluralistic nature of our society.[28]

The guides were representative of attempts by the Chicago

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[28]Board of Education of the City of Chicago, Ethnic Studies, German American Culture, A Mini-Unit (Chicago: Board of Education, 1976), v.

Board of Education to rectify the problems of omissions and misrepresentations of other ethnic and racial groups in instructional materials of the past. It is one thing to be aware of the problem, but to be aware and then take steps to solve or address the problem is an achievement that should be applauded.

In the introduction of each mini-unit guide acknowledgement is made concerning the problems that previously existed in textbooks and instructional guides. The Board wanted to ensure that teachers were cognizant of the purpose and objectives of these specially-developed guides. The introduction stressed the importance of correcting the inaccuracies of the past, as well as the necessity of disseminating this information to the students. A sample of the introduction follows:

> INTRODUCTION
>
> For too long, American history, in materials designed for classroom use, has been treated as a narration of events and dates in which the people of our nation were depicted as being uniform in their cultural, social, economic, and political backgrounds and values as well as in their life roles and life-styles. The rich, uniquely diverse, colorful mosaic of cultural components was sacrificed and distorted by being totally ignored or grossly understudied.
>
> The purpose of these various cultural mini-units undertaken by a committee of teachers and principals from Districts 12 and 15 has been to make a significant contribution toward correcting the imbalance and distortions which result when pupils are not given an opportunity to learn about and appreciate the significance of the role played by individuals of their own ancestral ethnic heritage, as well those of other ethnic cultural groups, in cooperating in developing a wholly

> new heritage which is unique to all the people of the United States as Americans.
>
> The whole is greater than the sum of its parts. All ethnic groups have given much and gained much in the process of volunteering to dedicate and link their destiny with the past heritage and democratic values and ideals of the United States and its philosophy and system of government as expressed and established in our Declaration of Independence and our Federal Constitution with its Bill of Rights.[29]

These guides contained materials on the geography, history, and cultural heritage of the ethnic groups represented. The following passages from the instructional guide Ukrainian American Culture are an indication of the change from the earlier trends of presenting ethnic groups in a negative manner to that of presenting their cultures as ones of pride and accomplishments. The following historical background is provided:

> Ukrainians are ethnic descendants of the Slavs, a peaceful agricultural people who for centuries occupied the fertile regions. They are descended from the original inhabitants of the land in pre-Christian and early Christian times, influenced by incursions of foreign ethnic elements.
>
> Ukrainians, descended from sixth century inhabitants of the land, are the second most numerous Slavic people in the Soviet Union. The Ukraine lacks natural frontiers except in the south along the Black Sea coast and the Sea of Azov. Consequently, since the thirteenth century it has been the subject of repeated invasions and conquests by the Tartar-Mongols, Lithuanians, Poles, Crimean Tartars, and Russians. In spite of centuries of foreign occupation and geographic division, the Ukrainians have tenaciously guarded and nurtured their

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[29]Ibid., 1.

language and culture.[30]

In reference to the attitudes and values of the Ukrainian people, the guide continues:

> Through the centuries, the church has been a strong element in molding Ukrainian life. The church has played a vital role in maintaining the language, preserving tradition, organizing schools, printing books, and in uniting the people. For the Ukrainian who immigrated to America in the nineteenth century, the church was the center of community life, serving both social and cultural needs.
>
> Because of impoverished economic conditions in the motherland, security was a cherished dream for many Ukrainians. The Ukrainian immigrant who came to the United States worked hard and displayed qualities of endurance, ingenuity, and enterprise. He led a frugal life in order to save for future needs.
>
> Illiteracy was high among the immigrants who came to the United States before 1914. Again Ukrainian initiative and group self-reliance met the need. The people organized reading rooms to provide for adult education needs and Ukrainian language schools to supplement American compulsory education for their children.[31]
>
> Information about the areas of residency was also available. The largest Ukrainian settlement in Chicago is in the vicinity of Chicago Avenue between Damen and Western Avenue. St. Nicholas Cathedal, Saints Volovymr and Oltha Ukrainian Church, and St. Vladimir Orthodox Catherdal are located in this area; also two publishers of Ukrainian language materials, two newspapers, the midwest offices of the Ukrainian National Association, the Ukrainian museum, and the Ukrainian Institute of Modern Art. There are stores displaying Ukrainian language books, magazines, and newspapers; Ukrainian handwork, such as embroideries and folk costumes; and Ukrainian wood carvings.[32]

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[30]Board of Education of the City of Chicago, Ethnic Studies, Ukrainian American Culture, A Mini-Unit (Chicago: Board of Education, 1977), 4-5.

[31]Ibid., 8.

[32]Ibid., 11.

In further endeavors to ensure that students of different ethnic and cultural backgrounds were treated with understanding and taught with consideration, the Board developed guides for teachers which provided them with information and knowledge that, hopefully, would enhance their human relation skills and improve their teaching techniques. The publication Puerto Rican Culture As It Affects Puerto Rican Children in Chicago Classrooms was one such guide. Its objective was to familiarize teachers with the cultural and environmental behaviors and attributes of Puerto Ricans. The following passage is an example of the type of information contained in the guide:

> The Puerto Rican of today is a fusion of the bloodstreams of the native Arawak Indians; of the Spanish, Portuguese, French, English, Dutch, Danish, Irish, and other European nationals who came to the island to fight or to trade and later returned to it to live; of the Africans who were imported as slaves; and of thousands of mainlanders who moved to the island.

In her book Puerto Rico: Island of Promise, Ruth Gruber gives the following description of the Puerto Rican:

> He is not Negro although 20 percent of the population is Negro. He is not an Indian yet the golden skin...the gentleness and hospitality of the Indians are a common trait all over the island. He is not a Spaniard, yet he may have blond hair...or...pure white skin...of Barcelona.[33]

The guide discusses the conflict of racial identify faced by the Puerto Rican. The aim of the guide was to make

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[33]Ruth Aruber, Puerto Rico: Island of Promise (New York: Hill & Wang, Inc., 1960), 54.

the teacher more aware of this self-conflict so that he or she would not compound the problem. The guide states the following:

> What a traumatic experience for the Puerto Rican when, for the first time, he is faced with racial prejudice! Where does he fit when he knows that skin color among the members of his own family varies from light to dark? Must he and his family feel demeaned and rejected? How can he protect himself and his family in this climate? These are important considerations for the teacher of Puerto Rican children in Chicago.[34]

Teachers in Chicago also had to be aware of the importance of calling a Puerto Rican student by his or her given name. A section of the guide covered this topic as well:

> One's name is an important part of his identity and a person has a right to maintain it. The only time his name should be changed is when it would cause the child embarrassment, make him the brunt of jokes, or cause him to be otherwise taunted. Jesse and Lucy are frequently substituted for the Spanish names Jesus and Luz. Although such action may be justified, name changes cause distress to non-English-speaking children.[35]

Due to the lack of knowledge concerning social practices and the family structure of the Puerto Ricans, problems, misunderstandings, and miscommunications often developed between the school and the home. The guide addressed this problem with the following explanation:

> Family ties are strong, and the family circle extends beyond the father, mother, and children to include godparents, grandparents, aunts and uncles, nieces and nephews, and cousins. Success or tragedy affecting one

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[34]Board of Education of the City of Chicago, Puerto Rican Culture as It Affects Puerto Rican Children in Chicago Classrooms (Chicago: Board of Education, 1970), 2.

[35]Ibid.

> member of a family affects all members of the family. No matter what catastrophe befalls an individual, some member of the family comes to his aid even if a trip is required from the mainland to the island or vice versa. As a guide to the behavior of many Puerto Ricans, it may be said that the heart is more important than the head. Puerto Ricans frequently take the children of relatives, friends, or neighbors into their homes and raise them as their own. The children usually retain their own family names, but they may, instead, take the name of the family with whom they are living. No legal adoption proceedings are followed. Difficulties frequently arise when a birth certificate or other legal document as proof of age and/or guardianship is demanded by the school. The family has no such evidence. The Puerto Rican has no concept of the reasoning behind such demands. The child exists. He lives with the family. His age and date of birth are stated. From the Puerto Rican point of view, that should suffice.[36]

Teachers complained about the absentee rate of these students and the impact their non-attendance had on their academic performance. "How can I teach them to read if they are constantly going back and forth to Puerto Rico?" was the question often asked. Teachers could not understand why it was necessary for the entire family to pack up their belongings and return home periodically. After reading the section on the family structure in the guide, it was hoped that the teacher would have a better understanding of "why."

The Chicago Board of Education was very aware of the problems that existed in the areas of multiethnic-multicultural education. As it had done with blacks and their demands in the 1960s, it now made some sincere attempts at addressing similar demands by parents and educators of other

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[36]Ibid., 3.

ethnic groups. These attempts were not the "solution" but they were a beginning. The multiethnic-multicultural students represented a significant segment of the total school population in Chicago. While their educational and social needs were being addressed through the utilization of mini-units and other instructional guides, aids, and materials, the Chicago Board of Education had the total student population to consider; the necessity for an effective reading program for all the students still existed. The Continuous Progress/Mastery Learning (CP/ML) reading program, which had been introduced as an optional program in 1963, became the mandated reading program for all Chicago public schools.

The Continuous Progress/Mastery Learning (CP/ML) Reading Program

The CP/ML reading program was a nongraded program, based on the philosophy that every child is an individual and as such has individual abilities, rates of growth (physically and mentally), and levels of maturity. This program advocated that learning was a continuous process; that every child could learn and master the required skills for reading if given the opportunity to learn at his or her own rate. The Chicago Board of Education developed a statement of its philosophy of continuous progress. In part, the statement said:

A program of Continuous Progress is:

A complete removal of grade levels--

from school organization
from room designations

from group labels
from staff thinking

A proper placement of each pupil according to his needs without restriction created by age or year in school

Responsive to the current and changing needs of the individual learner

Adjusted to the individual rate and style of learning of each pupil

Adaptable to any learner--
fast or slow
privileged or underprivileged
non-English speaking background or native born
strong background of experiences or weak background

An opportunity for changes in pupil placement made at any time during the school year according to need.[37]

Every teacher was expected to be fully familiar with this philosophy and to incorporate it into the reading program.

Previously, the public schools of Chicago had been on a graded system, which meant that the school year was divided into two semesters; the first semester, known as the "B" or beginning semester, began in September and ended the last of January. The second semester, known as the "A" or advanced semester, ran from the first of February to June. A student was expected to achieve a designated amount of work within the first semester; otherwise the result was failure and the student was required to repeat the first se-

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[37]Chicago Board of Education, Curriculm Guide in Reading for the Elementary School (Chicago: Board of Education, 1974), 2.

mester. If a student achieved and completed the prescribed amount of work, the result was a double promotion to the next grade, which meant that the student missed an entire semester of instruction in the various subject areas for that particular grade. Needless to say, this procedure caused many of these children to have difficulties in later grades due to "learning voids."

Continuous Progress/Mastery Learning did not place time restrictions, such as semesters, on learning. It included the divisions of primary, intermediate, and upper; however, the traditional grades were replaced with "levels," of which there were 13:

PRIMARY: Levels A,B,C,D,E,F,G,H (equivalent to kindergarten to grade 3)

INTERMEDIATE: Levels J,K,L (equivalent to grades 4,5, and 6)

UPPER: Levels M,N (equivalent to grades 7 and 8)

There were specific skills and objectives to be mastered at each level. Students were allowed to progress from one level to the next at their own rate of understanding, learning, and mastery of the required skills.

A reading guide for CP/ML was developed for each level; these guides were referred to as "volumes." These volumes were divided in the following manner:

Volume	Level
Reading Guide I, Part One	Levels AB
Reading Guide I, Part Two	Levels CD
Reading Guide II	Levels EF
Reading Guide III	Levels GH

Reading Guide IV	Levels JKL
Reading Guide V	Levels MN[38]

The program was divided among the four reading strands: word attack, comprehension, study skills, and literature. The word attack strand included the subskills of being able to attack unknown or unfamiliar words phonically and/or structurally, and to recognize all basic sight words. The comprehension strand included the subskills that related to literal and interpretive comprehension and critical reading. The study skills strand included such subskills as organization, classification, comparison, and location of information. The literature strand encompassed goals more than subskills; the major goals were to instill the desire to read in every student, to develop a love for books, and to develop lifelong reading habits. Within each strand there was a specified number of skills that had to be mastered before the student could progress to the next level. Originally there were 525 of these skills to be mastered between levels A and N; this number was later reduced to 273. The chart on page 165 provides a detailed overview of the breakdown of the skills.

The Reading Guide provided teachers with essential information and directions to aid them in implementing CP/ML. Every page designated a level, skill, subskill, objective number, and objective, for example:

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[38]Ibid., xiii.

CHART 1: OVERVIEW OF READING MASTERY RECORD CARD MODIFICATION

		Nos. of Reading Mastery Record Card Items							Nos. of Reading Guide Instructional Objective						
		RMRC READING STRANDS							GUIDE READING STRANDS						
Rdg Prog	Rdg Level	Word Attack	Comp	Study Skills	Lit	N Level	N Prog	N Total Prog	Word. Attack	Comp	Study Skills	Lit	N Level	N Prog	N Total Prog
PRIMARY	A	15 / 7	9 / 6	4 / 3	7 / 0	35 / 16	308 / 167	.525 / 273	23	22	12	29	86	819	1,407
	B	3 / 6	11 / 7	4 / 1	8 / 3	26 / 17			30	32	10	25	97		
	C	7 / 5	12 / 6	3 / 1	11 / 2	33 / 14			18	28	17	29	92		
	D	3 / 2	8 / 7	10 / 5	13 / 5	34 / 19			12	21	31	35	99		
	E	9 / 8	9 / 7	11 / 7	14 / 6	43 / 28			41	24	20	32	117		
	F	9 / 7	13 / 8	12 / 7	14 / 4	48 / 26			26	34	24	25	109		
	G	5 / 4	13 / 7	11 / 6	14 / 5	44 / 22			18	36	30	25	109		
	H	9 / 4	10 / 7	12 / 8	14 / 6	45 / 25			20	26	35	29	110		
INTER	J	12 / 6	20 / 9	19 / 9	16 / 6	67 / 30	154 / 72		52	42	30	30	154	414	
	K	8 / 4	12 / 8	14 / 7	7 / 2	41 / 21			48	29	30	23	130		
	L	5 / 0	16 / 9	15 / 6	10 / 6	46 / 21			33	31	38	28	130		
UPPER	M	0 / 0	8 / 6	11 / 4	11 / 5	30 / 15	63 / 34		0	17	36	32	85	174	
	N	0 / 0	13 / 9	9 / 6	11 / 4	33 / 19			0	27	32	30	89		
N Total Strand		86 / 53	154 / 96	135 / 70	150 / 54	525 / 273									

NOTE: No. of former key reading skill items
No. of modified key reading skill items

Note: Only the numbers of key reading skill items to be recorded on Reading Mastery Record Cards have been modified. The numbers of instructional objectives of the citywide reading program as contained in the reading curriculum guides have not been modified.

Level	A
Skill	Word Attack
Subskill	Phonic Analysis
Objective No.	AW1
Objective	Given a list of names, the learner will select his own.

A teaching/strategy was also provided, which gave the teacher some instructional suggestions as to how to teach the objective. The type of instructional materials used was the choice of the teachers, schools, or districts; however, basal readers were the core instructional tool. Pages 167 and 168 are examples from the Reading Guide of the way in which the guide was organized.

The Recordkeeping and Assessment Component of Continuous Progress/Mastery Learning (CP/ML)

The nongraded reading program of CP/ML required very detailed recordkeeping, which resulted in an extensive amount of time spent on grading papers and recording the outcomes. Reading mastery record cards were provided for the purpose of recording the student's status regarding mastery of the prescribed skills at his or her level. Every student had a record card. There were five record cards which were correlated with the Reading Guide. Reading Mastery Record Card I listed all of the skills for levels A through D; Card II, levels E-F; Card III, levels G-H; Card IV, levels J-K; and Card V, levels L, M, and N. Teachers had the toilsome task of using different symbols or codes to indicate the student's progress. For example, Reading

SAMPLE PAGES FROM READING GUIDE

Skill Literature Level A

Subskill Poetry: Rhythm Objective No. All

Objective Given Mother Goose rhymes orally, the learner will supply omitted repetitious lines.

Teaching/Learning Strategy

Suggested rhymes: "Hot Cross Buns," "The Bunch of Blue Ribbons," "Polly and Sukey," "The Mulberry Bush"

Suggested books: The Real Mother Goose, illustrated by Blanche Wright; Brian Wildsmith's Mother Goose

Show a Mother Goose book to the class. Invite volunteers to recite the Mother Goose rhymes they know.

Read "Hot Cross Buns" aloud. On the second or third reading, ask learners to join in on the repeated lines.

Read the poem aloud and ask learners to supply omitted repetitious lines.

Answers and/or Criteria

The learner will supply repetitious lines from at least two rhymes.

Basal Reader Reference			Cobasal Reader Reference		
Learner's Edition	Teacher's Edition	Workbook Activity	Learner's Edition	Teacher's Edition	Workbook Activity
p. _____	p. _____	p. _____	p. _____	p. _____	p. _____

Other Skill Reinforcement Materials

Title _____

Title _____

Nontextual Materials

_____

_____

Skill Study Skills Level J

Subskill Identification: Charts Objective No. JS21

Objective Given a chart, the learner will identify the information shown.

Teaching/Learning Strategy

Explain that a chart shows information. Prepare a chart on paper or a transparency. Write questions to aid learners in gaining information from the chart. Distribute the questions to the learners. Discuss the vocabulary on the chart. Guide learners in understanding the purpose of the chart. Have the learners answer the questions on their papers.

Chart of Inventions

Date	Invention	Inventor
1807	Steamboat	R. Fulton
1834	Reaper	C. McCormick
1846	Sewing machine	E. Howe
1876	Telephone	A. Bell
1877	Phonograph	T. Edison
1903	Airplane	W. and O. Wright

1. This chart is arranged in _____ order. chronological
2. How many inventions listed here were made before 1900? five
3. Who invented the sewing machine? Howe
4. What did McCormick invent? reaper
5. How many years passed between Fulton's invention and McCormick's? 27

Answers and/or Criteria

The learner will identify information on a given chart with 80 percent accuracy.

Basal Reader Reference

Learner's Edition	Teacher's Edition	Workbook Activity
p. _____	p. _____	p. _____

Cobasal Reader Reference

Learner's Edition	Teacher's Edition	Workbook Activity
p. _____	p. _____	p. _____

Other Skill Reinforcement Materials

Title _____

Title _____

Nontextual Materials

_____

_____

Mastery Record Card IV, for levels J and K, contained 154 skills to be mastered (72 after 1974).

A box was located next to each skill. When a skill was introduced, a diagonal line was placed in the box; if the student had been introduced to a skill, but needed further instruction or more reinforcement, then an X was placed in the box. If a student had achieved mastery of a particular skill, a circle was placed in the box which then could be punched out. When every box on the record card had been punched, it was an indication that the student had mastered all the skills for that level and was now ready to move to the next higher level. The record card served as an inventory of the basic reading skills, a guide for planning a student's instructional program, and an up-to-date profile of a student's achievement.[39] The samples of the reading mastery record cards on pages 192-195 give an idea of the amount of time and effort required for the record-keeping component of this program.

When CP/ML was introduced in the Chicago Public Schools in 1963, there was no formal testing component; the teachers, schools, or districts created their own methods of evaluation to determine mastery of the various skills. The Reading Guide stipulated the percentage of accuracy the student was expected to obtain, but no uniform tests were

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[39]Chicago Board of Education, Handbook for the Reading Mastery Record Card (Chicago: Board of Education, 1974), 5.

provided. In 1974, when the reading program was mandated for the entire system, a formal set of tests were developed; these tests were called criterion-referenced tests (CRTs). There were CRTs for the primary, intermediate, and upper levels; they were available in two alternate forms, Form A and Form B. Each form contained 40 test items (multiple choice or fill in the blanks). One point was given for each correct item; therefore, 40 was a perfect score. For a student to obtain mastery level, he or she had to get 80 percent or 32 items correct.[40] The sample tests on pages 173-191 show the format and content of the CRTs. The criterion-referenced tests provided the schools with a uniformed testing system for the Continuous Progress/Mastery Learning reading program. These tests also aided the teachers in establishing some definitive goals and objectives for their reading instruction. In addition to the CRTs, the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills (ITBS) were administered as the standardized test for the entire city.

The Assessment Program of the Chicago Public Schools

The need for an assessment component of the Continuous Progress/Mastery Learning reading program led to the development of the criterion-referenced tests. The CRTs were administered as the evaluative component of CP/ML; they provided the teachers, students, parents, and the Board of

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[40]Ibid.

Education with some factual data regarding the effectiveness of the reading program. However, this data was compiled at the local school level. The Department of Research and Evaluation, due to factors such as the lack of time and staff, did not conduct a statistical compilation of the criterion-referenced tests. Research and Evaluation used the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills as its city-wide evaluation tool. The scores in reading comprehension and vocabulary provided test data on the progress or rate of growth in reading attained by the students at the elementary grade levels. The test scores between 1975 and 1980 indicated a slow, but steady, improvement in the reading scores. Although the students in the Chicago public schools were below the national norms at each grade level (age cycle in CP/ML), the goal of the Chicago Board of Education was to have its students reading on or above their grade levels. The results of the Iowa Tests of Basics Skills for the years 1975 to 1980 are given in Appendix A.

Critique of Continuous Progress/Mastery Learning

The Chicago Board of Education had high expectations that the CP/ML reading program would provide students with the skills necessary to make them good readers and would also help Chicago students reach the national norm. However, many teachers and administrators felt that the management component of CP/ML required too much time, which detracted from the instructional aspect of the program. The overwhelming number of skills to be mastered often

frustrated students, teachers, administrators, and parents. The philosophy of progression at one's own rate of learning looked better on paper than it actually worked in the classroom. The organizational structure of CP/ML also allowed room for misuse and abuse of the movement between levels.

The implementation of CP/ML was the continuation of the search by the Board of Education for the best methods and the most effective instructional materials. The Chicago Board of Education's priority was, as it had been throughout its history of educational endeavors, to have every public school student reading at or above grade level upon graduating from elementary school. The constant attempts through the years of trying to develop an effective reading program that would accomplish this goal are an indication of the determination and commitment of the Chicago Board of Education to succeed in this "must win" effort.

CRITERION-REFERENCED TESTING PROGRAM

Chicago Public Schools

END-OF-CYCLE TEST IN READING

PRIMARY LEVEL

Form A - 1979

Developed in
Department of Research
and Evaluation

JOSEPH P. HANNON
General Superintendent of Schools
Chicago Public Schools

Form A
Revised 1979

Chicago Public Schools

PRIMARY END-OF-CYCLE TEST IN READING

Name _____

For questions 1 and 2 circle the correct word to complete each sentence.

1. Mr. Jones is very _____ cooking dinner.

   a. bushy
   b. busy
   c. cloudy

2. I will get some _____ from the library.

   a. books
   b. backs
   c. stores

For questions 3 and 4 circle the correct word to complete each sentence. Be alert! The spelling is important.

3. The house is made of _____.

   a. wood
   b. would

4. In the fall, the trees become _____.

   a. bear
   b. bare

Read each question carefully and circle the correct answer.

5. Is this sentence a statement of fact or opinion?
"The movie I watched on TV yesterday was terrible."

a. fact
b. opinion

6. Is this sentence a statement of fact or opinion?
"The telephone, the television, and the stereo all need electricity to work."

a. fact
b. opinion

7. Which is the silent letter in the word <u>wrist</u>?

a. w
b. r
c. i
d. s
e. t

8. Which is the silent letter in the word <u>sign</u>?

a. s
b. i
c. g
d. n

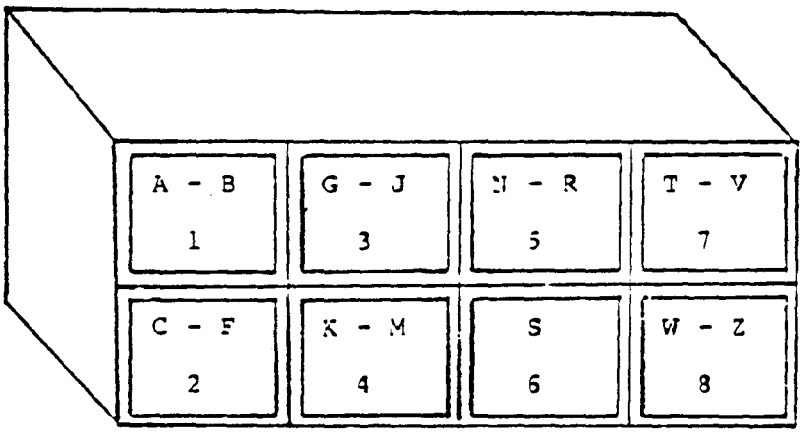
9. Which of the word pairs below are opposites?

a. in - out
b. bear - bare
c. out - on
d. look - search

10. Which of the word pairs below are opposites?

a. bright - dark
b. bright - close
c. dark - black
d. close - near

Look at the sample card catalog to answer questions 11 and 12.



Circle the correct answer.

11. Which drawer would contain a subject card for Automobile?

a. drawer 1
b. drawer 2
c. drawer 3
d. drawer 4
e. drawer 5
f. drawer 6
g. drawer 7
h. drawer 8

12. Which drawer would contain a subject card for Giraffe?

a. drawer 1
b. drawer 2
c. drawer 3
d. drawer 4
e. drawer 5
f. drawer 6
g. drawer 7
h. drawer 8

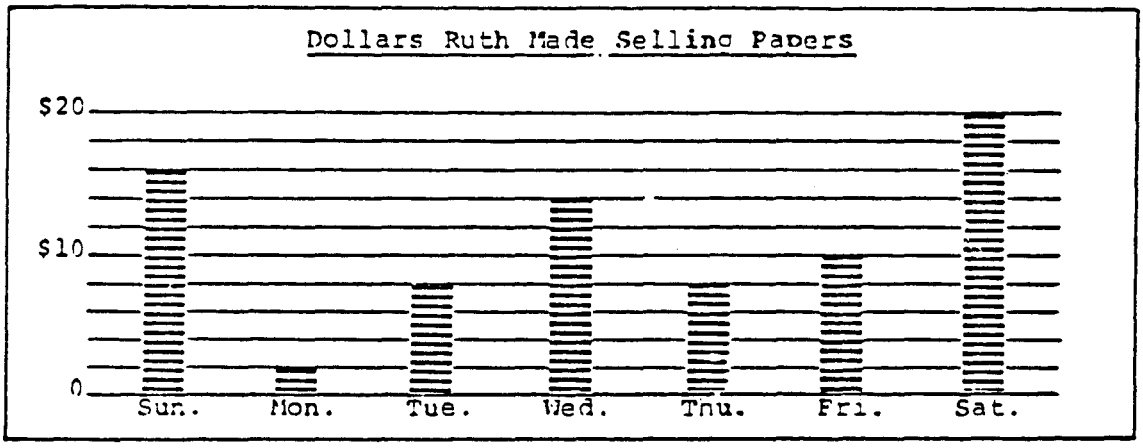
13. Choose the best ending for the sentence: "I like to play baseball with _____." Circle the correct answer.

    a. my pet kitten
    b. my toys
    c. my friends

14. Choose the best ending for the sentence: "We went horseback riding _____." Circle the correct answer.

    a. in the lake
    b. along the trail
    c. in the bed

Look at the graph below to answer questions 15 and 16.



Circle the correct answer.

15. How many more dollars did Ruth earn on Friday than on Tuesday?

    a. $ 2.00
    b. $ 8.00
    c. $10.00

16. On which day did Ruth earn $16?

    a. Wednesday
    b. Sunday
    c. Friday

17. Is this sentence fact or fiction?
"The horse built himself a big barn."

a. fact
b. fiction

18. Is this sentence fact or fiction?
"The table of contents is in the front of the book."

a. fact
b. fiction

Look at the table of contents below and answer questions 19 and 20.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Circle the correct answer.

19. How many stories are in this book?

a. 3
b. 4
c. 24

20. What is the title of the first story in this book?

a. The First Day of School
b. Table of Contents
c. Lewis Webster

Chicago Public Schools

END-OF-CYCLE TEST IN READING

INTERMEDIATE LEVEL

Form B - 1979

Developed in
Department of Research
and Evaluation

JOSEPH P. HANNON
General Superintendent of Schools
Chicago Public Schools

Form B
Revised 1979

Chicago Public Schools

INTERMEDIATE LEVEL END-OF-CYCLE TEST IN READING

Name _____

READ THE INSTRUCTION FOR EACH QUESTION VERY CAREFULLY.

A. Read the passage below and answer the questions that follow.

David woke up with a big yawn. Then he remembered that this was a very important day - the most important of his whole life. He let out a whoop and dashed downstairs yelling, "Up everyone; get up; hurry!" When he reached the living room he found his family already gathered around the TV. No one spoke as he nervously took his place on the floor. They all looked scared. For the last month his father had been living on the rocket base preparing for today's blastoff. David missed him so much. Sometimes he thought how nice it would be if his father had a job like other kids' fathers. But not today; he was proud that his dad was so special. "That's him - that's my dad," he yelled as the TV camera showed the three space explorers walking across the launching pad and into the rocket. His dad was the one in the middle. David felt his heart pound and his mouth go dry when the announcer started the countdown: "10 - 9 - 8 ---."

.Circle the correct answer.

1. What is David's father's profession?

   a. firefighter
   b. deep sea diver
   c. astronaut

2. What was the atmosphere in the living room?

   a. tense
   b. sad
   c. humorous

B. For questions 3 and 4, select a word from the WORD LIST below and write it in the space provided to make a new word.

WORD LIST

change	move	friend
remark	honest	popular

3. dis _____

4. _____ship

C. Read the paragraph below, and answer the question that follow.

> Citizens and registered voters! Your presence here tells me that you are concerned. You are tired of dishonest, crooked politicians. You are tired of having your vote thrown away to a person whose only purpose is to stay in office in order to get rich. Let us here pledge ourselves to unite in order to put my opponent, a man of no principles whatsoever, back on the lists of the unemployed.

Circle the correct answer.

5. Is the above paragraph an example of propaganda?

   a. Yes
   b. No

---

6. Does this sentence contain a metaphor? "There was a rushing stampede of hungry children." Circle the correct answer.

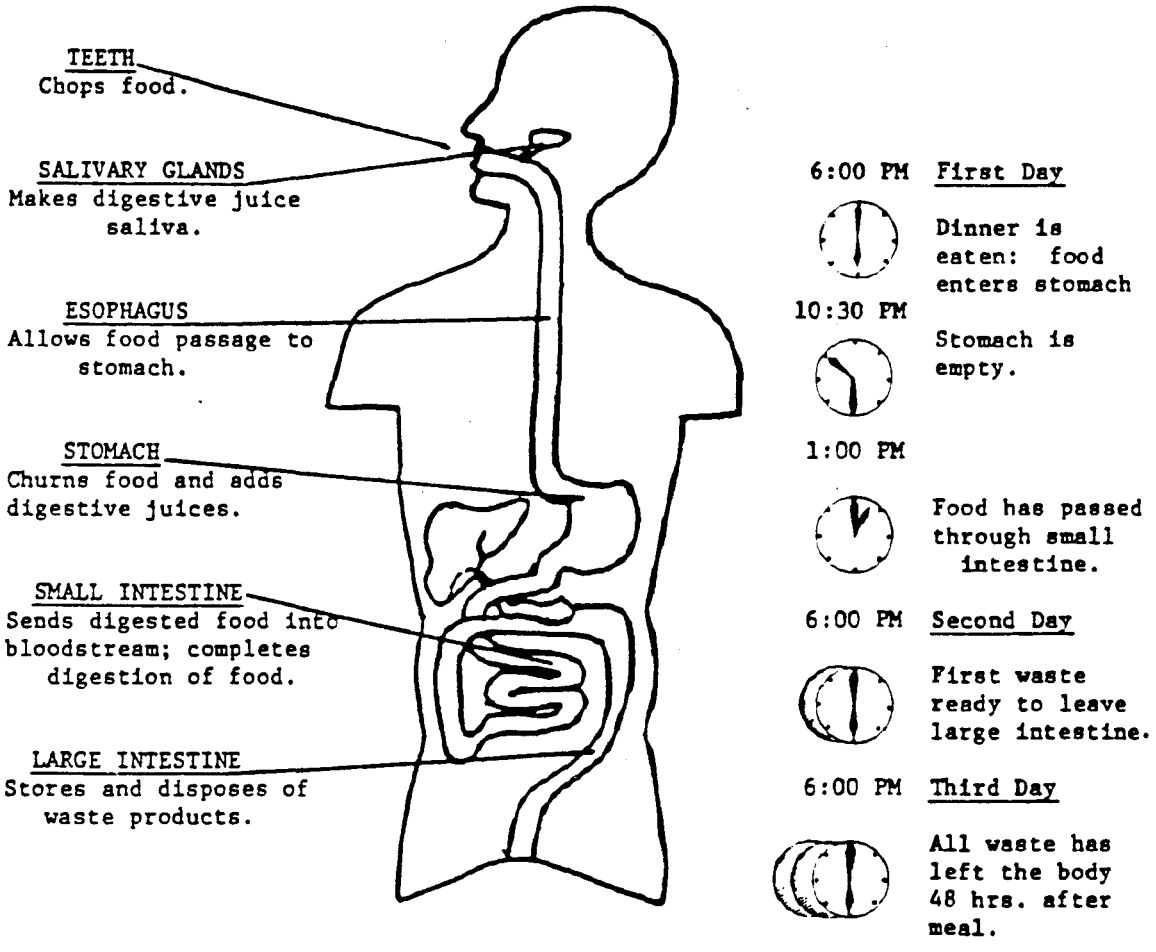
   a. Yes
   b. No

D. Place a dash (-) between the syllables of the words below.

7. i m m e d i a t e

8. d e m o n s t r a t i o n

Look at the diagram below and answer questions 9 and 10.



Choose the word or words which correctly complete each sentence. Circle the correct answer.

9. Food leaves the body from the _____.

   a. large intestine
   b. small intestine
   c. stomach

10. The diagram shows how food is _____.

   a. stored
   b. eaten
   c. digested

F. Choose the word which best completes each analogy. Circle the correct answer.

11. Pig is to pork as cow is to _____.

a. grass
b. hoof
c. beef

12. Book is to library as word is to _____.

a. dictionary
b. stamp
c. card

---

13. Look at the list of words below. Which one of the three rules identifies the pattern in this list? Circle the letter of the correct answer.

WORD LIST

son	-	sun
would	-	wood
red	-	read
right	-	write
blue	-	blew

Rules

a. Words that sound the same but are spelled differently and have a different meaning are called homonyms.
b. I before e except after c.
c. To form the plural of nouns ending in y when preceded by a consonant, change y to and i and add es.

G. In the space provided write the word which the underlined ABBREVIATION stands for.

14. Capt. Stova was awarded the medal of honor. _____

15. Marge lives east of Halsted St. _____

H. Read the paragraph below and answer the question that follows.

> Dave fell into a dark place. The ground under him was dirty and damp to the touch. He extended his arms, trying to push away the blackness as he reached out toward anything that was solid. There was nothing but a mass of sticky webbing hanging close to his hair. He raised his hand to wipe off any that might have touched him. The smell was bad, and so strong that he actually felt sick from it. If he could only see, anything, a shape, a movement, something he could recognize.

16. What is the mood of this paragraph?

    a. secure
    b. calm
    c. frightening

I. Write the prefix, root word, and suffix, in the spaces provided after each word.

		Prefix	Root Word	Suffix
17.	biweekly	_____	_____	_____
18.	untalented	_____	_____	_____

---

19. What is the correct plural form of the word <u>child</u>?

    a. children
    b. childes
    c. childs

J. Use the dictionary sample below to answer the questions that follow.

> TRAIN (trān), 1. a connected line of railroad cars moving together. 2. line of people or animals moving along together. 3. part that hangs down and drags along: the train of a lady's gown. 4. teach: train a dog. 5. make fit by exercise: train for the olympics. 6. point, aim: train cannon upon the fort. 7. tail: train of a comet.

20. "Our colleges and universities train the scientists of tomorrow." Which of the definitions above best fits the underlined word? Circle the correct answer.

a. 1
b. 2
c. 3
d. 4
e. 5
f. 6
g. 7

21. "Behind a shooting star is a beautiful train of light." Which of the definitions above best fits the underlined word? Circle the correct answer.

a. 1
b. 3
c. 3
d. 4
e. 5
f. 6
g. 7

K. For the questions below choose the word or phrase which correctly completes the sentences. Circle the correct answer.

22. Four _____ were wagging wildly with delight.

a. dogs tails
b. dogs' tails
c. dog's tails

23. We found my _____ under the table.

a. mothers key
b. mother's keys
c. mothers' keys

Chicago Public Schools

END-OF-CYCLE TEST IN READING

UPPER LEVEL

Form A - 1979

Developed in
Department of Research
and Evaluation

JOSEPH P. HANNON
General Superintendent of Schools
Chicago Public Schools

Form A
Revised 1979

Chicago Public Schools

UPPER LEVEL END-OF-CYCLE TEST IN READING

Name _____

Read the instructions for each question very carefully.

A. Read the story below and answer the questions that follow.

"You want some breakfast?" She looked at him, while she wiped her hands on an apron already dirty from yesterday's dinner. He had come in, hair still uncombed, his shirt not yet tucked into his trousers. He had flopped his body on the nearest chair and allowed his chin to drag on his chest. He did not stir.

"Honey, do you want something to eat? Maybe a bowl of cereal with a banana? I'll make you some hot cocoa. It's cold out. You could use something hot."

There was still no answer. She did think she saw him barely shake his head. The silence was beginning to bother her.

"Look, baby, you have to put something in your stomach. You'll feel better. I'm sure you will."

There was a heavy silence in the room. She turned her back on him and went about filling the sink with hot water and suds. She then cleared off the kitchen table, filled with crumbs from the buttered toast and dishes caked with cold egg yolks. She was glad for the chance to keep her hands busy. She noticed his hands, folded on his lap, looking over-large and useless.

"My God, he's taking it hard." She wanted to get behind him, reach out and hug him - to take some of his pain away. She did nothing.

"Look Danny, I know you're feeling bad. It was a dumb stupid way to die. It's all so absurd. And I'm going to miss him too. There was no kid I was happier to see here in this house. There wasn't a nicer kid. That driver must have been blind not to see the reflectors on his bike . . . blind! His poor parents . . . what they must be going through. It's so sad...."

She looked squarely at her son. Finally, one large, round tear came slowly down his face. He stood up — quickly, so as not to let out more tears in front of her, or anyone.

"They don't make guys like that — they just don't. He was my best friend, and now he's gone. It's just not fair! He slammed his chair into the table, turned hard, and pounded up the stairs.

She squeezed her eyes shut as she heard the door upstairs slam.

Circle the letter in front of the correct answer.

1. Danny's mood can be described as--

   a. arrogant
   b. depressed
   c. relieved

2. His mother was offering him food in the hopes of--

   a. fattening him up
   b. using up the food in her refrigerator
   c. diverting his attention

3. His mother could be described as--

   a. pushy
   b. concerned
   c. without understanding

4. Danny's appearance was--

   a. sloppy
   b. neat
   c. handsome

B. Read the following paragraph and answer question 5.

If you worry about burglars entering your house while you're away, you should consider having the new automatic telephone alarm system installed in your home. The new electronic watchdog dials the police only moments after a burglar enters, and a taped voice message summons police for emergency help. The system can be programmed to make several different calls, one right after the other. It first notifies police, then follows with a call to your office or job.

5. Which <u>two</u> facts support the following statement? <u>The new electronic telephone system combats burglars</u>. Circle the correct answer.

   a. A taped voice message summons police.
   b. Your neighbors know that you are in trouble.
   c. People worry about burglars.
   d. The new electronic watchdog goes into action when someone enters your house.

C. Study the sample notes from a reference book and answer the questions that follow.

Dodd, Robert L., The Making of an Astronaut.
Random Home, Des Moines, Iowa. c: 1973, pp. 58 - 61.
Selection - Done by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA).
Qualifications - U.S. citizen, not taller than six feet; college degree or experience in engineering or science.
Training - Done in four major areas: 1) classroom; 2) training on static (non-moving) devices; 3) training in dynamic (moving) devices; 4) escape and survival training.

6. In how many different areas are astronauts trained? _____

7. Who selects the astronauts? _____

_____

D. Study the sample footnotes below and answer the questions that follow.

[1]Robert Lanier, Graphing for Graphics, (New York: Miller Press, 1972), p. 238.

[2]Ibid., p. 49.

[3]Warren Linn, "More Murals," Art News 21 (July 7, 1974), p. 118.

[4]"City Blues," Chicago Daily Review (May 23, 1975), p. 16.

8. Which volume of the Art News contains the article written by Warren Linn?

a. 21
b. 118
c. 7

9. In footnote #1, what does New York refer to?

a. The place of birth of the author.
b. The place where the book was written.
c. The place where the book was published.

E. Circle the letter in front of the word that best defines the underlined word.

10. Before you are allowed to join the union as a fully paid member, you must spend two years working as an <u>apprentice</u>.

a. trainee
b. bricklayer
c. messenger
d. car hop

11. It is necessary to <u>isolate</u> those with the disease.

a. destroy
b. reserve
c. set apart
d. insult

12. It is necessary for all men to live with a set of <u>principles</u>.

a. heads of school
b. straight lines
c. rules of conduct
d. bank statements

13. READ THE FOLLOWING PARAGRAPH AND UNDERLINE THE TOPIC SENTENCE.

Children were once told to eat spinach. Now it seems that spinach is good for headaches, but not especially good for children. Children were once told to drink lots of milk. Now it seems that milk isn't very good for you if you're over five or six. Butter and eggs are bad for your heart; so is meat. You shouldn't eat candy, but cocoa is good for an upset stomach. Breakfast foods are bad for you; hot dogs are bad for you; white bread and soft drinks are bad for you. Broccoli and watermelon are in, but tomorrow they may be out! It seems we get different news about food every day.

---

14. The sentence "The car coughed and finally died" is an example of which of the following figures of speech? Circle the letter of the correct answer.

a. Alliteration
b. Hyperbole
c. Metaphor
d. Onomatopoeia
e. Personification
f. Simile

F. MATCH the letter of the book part from the list below with its definition. Place the letter of the book part next to the number of the definition.

Book Parts

a. Bibliography

b. Title

c. Preface

d. Acknowledgments

e. Author

Definitions of Book Parts

15. _____ The name of a book.

16. _____ A list of persons who are being thanked for their contributions to the book.

17. _____ The writer of a book.

18. _____ A list of books about a specific subject.

19. _____ An introductory statement that explains the purpose of a book.

G. List two encyclopedia topics where you would find information to answer the following questions.

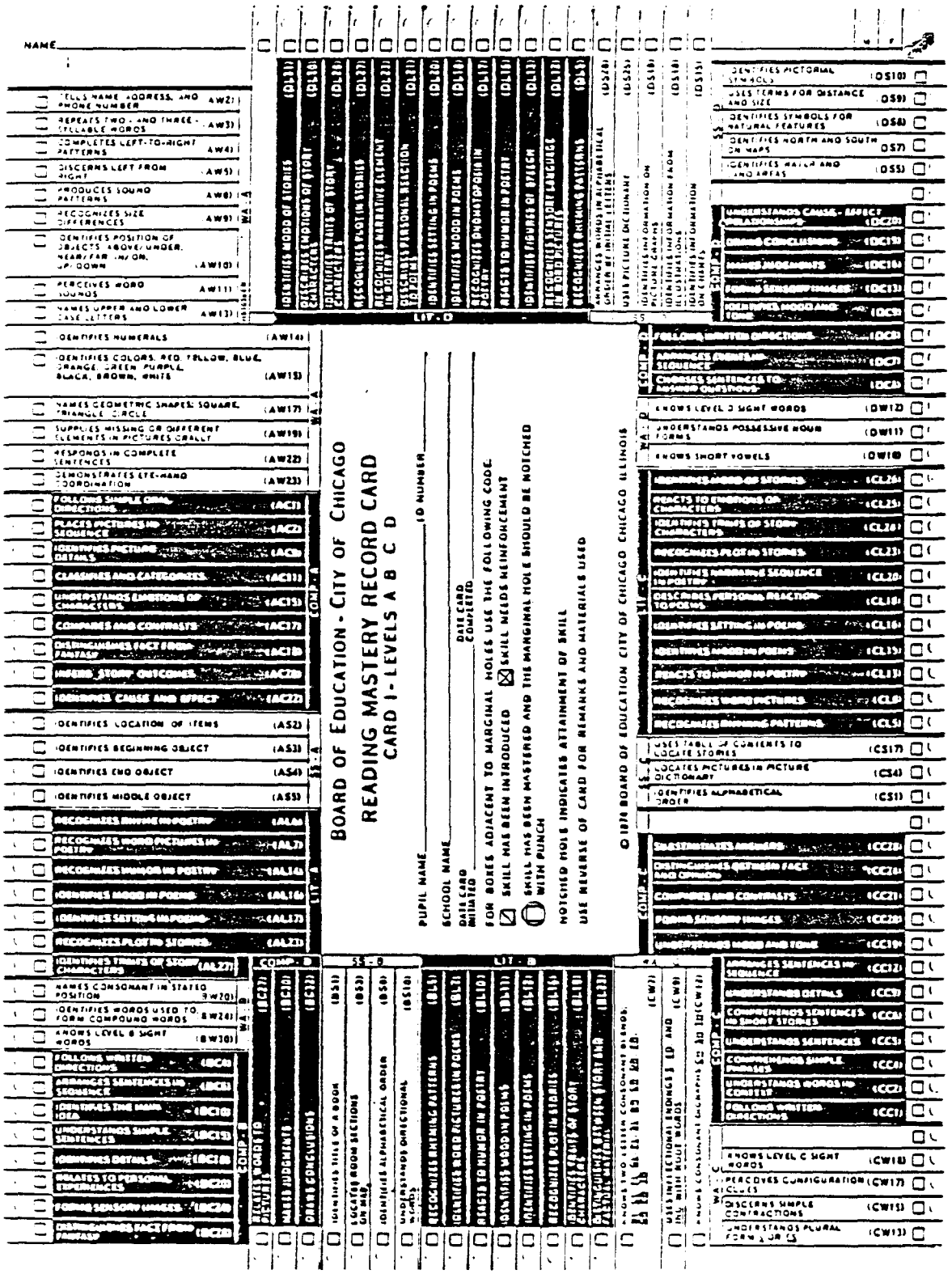
20. How is our environment polluted?

_____ _____

21. Where are most of the world's precious stones mined?

_____ _____

READING MASTERY RECORD CARDS



BOARD OF EDUCATION - CITY OF CHICAGO

READING MASTERY RECORD CARD

CARD II - LEVELS E F

PUPIL NAME _____ ID NUMBER _____

SCHOOL NAME _____

DATE CARD INITIATED _____ DATE CARD COMPLETED _____

FOR MARGINAL HOLES USE THE FOLLOWING CODE:

○ SKILL HAS BEEN MASTERED AND THE MARGINAL HOLE SHOULD BE NOTCHED WITH PUNCH. NOTCHED HOLE INDICATES ATTAINMENT OF SKILL.

OR USE ALTERNATIVE CODE:

■ SKILL HAS BEEN MASTERED AND THE BOX ADJACENT TO THE MARGINAL HOLE SHOULD BE SHADED WITH PEN OR PENCIL.

NOTE: DATA FROM CURRENT CARD NEED NOT BE RE-ENTERED ON REVISED CARD. CURRENT CARD MAY BE STAPLED BEHIND REVISED CARD. USE REVERSE OF CARD FOR REMARKS AND MATERIALS USED.

BOARD OF EDUCATION - CITY OF CHICAGO

READING MASTERY RECORD CARD

CARD III - LEVELS G H

PUPIL NAME _____ ID NUMBER _____

SCHOOL NAME _____

DATE CARD INITIATED _____ DATE CARD COMPLETED _____

FOR MARGINAL HOLES USE THE FOLLOWING CODE:

○ SKILL HAS BEEN MASTERED AND THE MARGINAL HOLE SHOULD BE NOTCHED WITH PUNCH. NOTCHED HOLE INDICATES ATTAINMENT OF SKILL.

OR USE ALTERNATIVE CODE:

■ SKILL HAS BEEN MASTERED AND THE BOX ADJACENT TO THE MARGINAL HOLE SHOULD BE SHADED WITH PEN OR PENCIL.

NOTE: DATA FROM CURRENT CARD NEED NOT BE REENTERED ON REVISED CARD. CURRENT CARD MAY BE STAPLED BEHIND REVISED CARD. USE REVERSE OF CARD FOR REMARKS AND MATERIALS USED.

BOARD OF EDUCATION - CITY OF CHICAGO

READING MASTERY RECORD CARD

CARD IV - LEVELS J K

PUPIL NAME _____ ID NUMBER _____

SCHOOL NAME _____

DATE CARD INITIATED _____ DATE CARD COMPLETED _____

FOR BOXES ADJACENT TO MARGINAL HOLES USE THE FOLLOWING CODE:

☑ SKILL HAS BEEN INTRODUCED ☒ SKILL NEEDS REINFORCEMENT

SKILL HAS BEEN MASTERED AND THE MARGINAL HOLE SHOULD BE NOTCHED WITH PUNCH

NOTCHED HOLE INDICATES ATTAINMENT OF SKILL

USE REVERSE OF CARD FOR REMARKS AND MATERIALS USED

CHAPTER VI

A SUMMARY OF GENERAL TRENDS IN READING IN THE CHICAGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS: AN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Historical Periods

The 1985 publication Becoming a Nation of Readers: The Report of the Commission on Reading contains the following statement about the goals, functions, and importance of reading:

> Reading is a basic life skill. It is a cornerstone for a child's success in school and, indeed, throughout life. Without the ability to read well, opportunities for personal fulfillment and job success inevitably will be lost. Reading is important for the society as well as the individual. Economic research has established that schooling is an investment that forms human capital--that is, knowledge, skill, and problem-solving ability that have enduring value.[1]

Historically, this has not always been the goal of the reading program in the American public schools. In nineteenth-century America, the purpose of the public schools was to train the students to become good citizens with good character and upstanding principles. Textbooks

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[1]Richard C. Anderson, Elfrieda H. Hiebert, Judith A. Scott, and Ian A.G. Wilkinson, Becoming a Nation of Readers: The Report of the Commission on Reading (Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Education, 1985), Introduction.

had always been the major tool and the primary source of materials used to teach good character and principles through reading; teachers concentrated more on the students' moral development than on the students' intellectual development. Because of the necessity and demand for such reading materials, textbook writers and publishers had an exalted idea of their function. Statements such as the following were made: "The mind of the child is like the soft wax to receive an impression, but like the rigid marble to retain it."[2]

Of course it should be pointed out that many school textbooks published in the nineteenth century were written by printers, journalists, teachers, ministers, and future lawyers some of whom were trying to earn their way through college. Very few intellectuals wrote schoolbooks. Many textbooks reflected social, cultural, and moral values of evangelical Protestantism. Students had little else, besides the Bible, to read other than their schoolbooks which, as previously stated, served as the central instructional tool in the classroom. Many factors, including the lack of highly trained teachers, dictated not only the exclusive use of these books, but also required the memorization of most of these texts. Books such as the McGuffey readers and Webster's American Spelling Book were classic

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[2]Ruth Miller Elson, Guardians of Tradition: American Schoolbooks of the Nineteenth Century (Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press, 1964), 1.

examples of textbooks of this period. Noah Webster urged the use of his American Spelling Book, saying that it would enable teachers "to instill into their children's minds, with the first rudiments of the language, some just ideas of religion, morals, and domestic economy."[3]

When the child entered school, the first books he or she was presented with were spelling and arithmetic books. The spellers contained the letters of the alphabet, long lists of letter combinations that were really nonsense syllables, and lists of words that the students were required to memorize. Seemingly, very few attempts were made to select words that were familiar to the child or words that had concrete rather than abstract meanings and relationships. Words such as heresy, popery, republic, and kingdom could be found on most of the early spelling lists; very seldom were definitions provided.[4]

Reading has basically been defined as the process of constructing or comprehending meaning from the printed word or written texts; or in lay terms, understanding what is being read. The skill of comprehension was not a priority in the teaching of reading nor was it advocated in the textbooks used to teach reading. In the introductions or pre-

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[3]Ibid.

[4]Ibid., 2.

faces of many of the spellers and readers of this period, a section called "Hints to Teachers" had such statements as: "A leading object of this work is to enable the scholar while learning to read, to understand, at the same time, the meaning of the words he is reading."[5] This statement would lead one to conjecture that the teaching of the meanings of words the students needed to know to adequately read the text was not common practice. Again, the emphasis of the textbooks was not on teaching the students how to read or to expand their knowledge as much as it was on teaching them morality and values.

This use of textbooks and method of teaching reading were often unproductive for the students because of the ineffective learning environment of the classrooms. As previously stated, many teachers were poorly trained at best; therefore, they required the students to learn material by using the method of letter-perfect memorization, with little or no attention to the understanding or meaning of that material. Many of the teachers did not have an education beyond the schools in which they taught; and when interviewed or given examinations for a teaching position, their moral character was considered more important as a qualification than their technical and professional train-

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[5]Ibid., 3.

ing or knowledge of teaching. Because of these conditions and situations, textbooks were placed in the position of being "the teacher" and enjoyed a reputation of upmost importance.

The problems that existed in other parts of the United States were prevalent in the early schools of Chicago in that the textbooks used contained religious and moral overtones. Little consideration was given to the teaching of reading as an essential skill; however, as time progressed, so did the ideas and the philosophies of teaching reading. Along with this change, textbooks also changed. As discussed in Chapter 1, the public schools in Chicago went from the practice of using a variety of readers, or whatever books the children brought from home, to adopting a standard, uniform set of readers. In 1859, Superintendent Wells stressed the importance of the students being able to understand the meanings of the words they read, rather than meaning being a by-product of word calling.

Superintendent Wells also advocated the concept of "concreteness" and the relevancy of the words the students were required to learn. This was a change from the earlier days when students were required to memorize nonsense words and syllables that were totally abstract and had no real meaning for the students. As early as 1863, Wells foresaw the importance and the function of reading. Other superintendents would follow and they, too, would promote read-

ing as the foundation of a child's education; they, too, would advocate changes in how reading should be taught.

There seemingly has always been that big question mark surrounding the teaching of reading. In the early days the questions centered around what type of materials should be used, and what was more important, the concepts to be learned or the methods used to teach reading. As the years progressed, so did the ideas and methods of teaching. A second look was taken at how reading had been taught, at the methods that worked and those that did not, at the materials that were suitable and those that were inadequate, and, finally, a good look at the students and how best to meet their needs. Schools and their curricula have had a history of changes, some of which were minor changes, others major, but all done with the objective of providing better schools and a better education for the students.

Instructional Trends in Reading: 1820-1860

Between the years of 1820 and 1860, the common school movement took place. This movement was significant because the events that took place had a direct bearing on the establishment of public schools in various states and cities including Chicago and the curriculum taught in those schools. The common school movement started in the New England states of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Hampshire; spread to the Middle Atlantic states; and finally, after the Civil War, caught on in the Southern states.

Although the leaders of this movement, Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, Ninian Edwards, and others, differed as to what the goals of common schools should be, they agreed that there was a definite need for a system of public schools which would provide a free education to all the citizens. America was still a young country. Although it had fought a great war, won, and declared its independence from Great Britain in 1776, it still had a larger battle to fight and win; that of uniting and working together as thirteen "united" states rather than thirteen "independent" states as many considered themselves. The leaders knew that for the young nation to survive it would take unity and an educated, informed citizenry. They also knew that the best way to insure that everyone received an education was to make learning accessible to everyone who wished to take advantage of the opportunity.

Prominent educators such as Horace Mann and Henry Barnard were avid supporters and advocates of the common school movement in the early nineteenth century. Through their efforts many positive changes in education occurred. Mann, especially, was credited with many insightful and progressive innovations in education during this period. He challenged religious domination of schools, which set the stage in America for non-sectarian schools.

Mann campaigned for more money for public schools and, as a result, during the twelve years of his tenure as secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, appro-

priations more than doubled, teachers' salaries were increased, and one month was added to the school year.

In the area of reading, Horace Mann worked to eliminate the "slow, wasteful, and unintelligent alphabet method" of teaching reading and urged that it be replaced with the word-method,[6] which meant that reading would be taught with meaning and relevancy to the students.

Henry Barnard, the secretary of the Connecticut State Board of Education, further aided the cause of education in his advocacy of a functional curriculum in the public schools. He, too, advanced the teaching of reading by advocating reading, writing, and arithmetic as the primary branches of learning; and by stressing that English, which included spelling, reading, speaking, grammar, and composition, was the most important subject in the school's curriculum. He, like Mann, knew the importance of a good teacher training program in addition to a good sound curriculum in ensuring the survival and growth of the common schools.

The common school movement resulted in state systems of tax-supported, locally-controlled elementary schools throughout the United States, including Chicago where basic

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[6]Ellwood P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States: A Study and Interpretation of American Educational History (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934), 225.

instruction in reading, in addition to other subjects, was implemented. As with any new movement or program there were both positive and negative outcomes or results. On the plus side, the common school movement made education available to everyone, regardless of social, religious, or economic status; it helped to establish a standard curriculum; and it aided in bringing about some conformity, especially in the area of instructional reading materials and textbooks.

Instructional Trends in Reading: 1941-1960

In 1941, on December 7, the attack on Pearl Harbor by Japan occurred. On the international and national level, this event resulted in the United States entering World War II. It also led to many social changes, such as the increased employment of women and blacks in factories, war plants, and the military.

On the local level, in the Chicago Public Schools, the war had a direct effect on the curriculum. In its attempts to aid the war effort, the Chicago Board of Education initiated a long-range program of curriculum improvements and additions as a means of preparing students for whatever mission they might be called upon to perform. Instructional committees were formed to review the present curriculum involving science, mathematics, foreign languages, and reading. An outgrowth of this was the implementation of a developmental reading improvement program (Chicago Develop-

mental Reading Program) in 1942. Prior to the war, a remedial reading program had existed, especially for high school freshmen; however, this new reading improvement program was for students in grades four through twelve and was based on the belief and educational philosophy that in order for students to be proficient readers, it was essential that they be provided with explicit and direct instruction in reading skills throughout their school life.

Unlike earlier reading programs, this program emphasized the specific skills needed for purposeful reading (to find answers, follow directions, or make reports) and those used for recreational-type reading (reading for fun and pleasure). The teaching of definite skills in the middle and upper grades was put into effect; in the upper grades, namely seventh and eighth, reading was extended into other curricular and content areas such as science, social studies, and mathematics; and better coordination of the reading programs between the elementary and high schools was strongly encouraged.

Between 1945 and 1950 the Chicago Developmental Reading Program was expanded to include the primary grades. The Bureau of Curriculum developed and published instructional reading guides that delineated the specific skills which were to be taught at each grade level. These guides were developed to be used in conjunction with basal readers

written by various publishing companies. Some of the more widely used basals were Fun with Dick and Jane, published by Scott, Foresman and Company; Happy Days, published by Row, Peterson and Company; The Story Road, by Winston Publishing Company; and Making New Friends, by Ginn Publishing Company. The schools or districts could select the basal they wished to use; however, to ensure conformity and continuity, every teacher was required to use and follow the instructional guides. These guides contained suggestions for reading experiences in oral discussions, writing, singing, and play-acting. Also included were suggestions and ideas for teaching such reading skills as sequencing, determining important and unimportant ideas, and reading for meaning. The teaching of phonics was considered "the method" for teaching students decoding skills or "figuring out a word" by determining its beginning, middle, and/or end sounds. As a means of evaluation, multiple choice, completion, and matching tests in reading were administered.

Reading instruction between the years of 1950 and 1960 met with a new challenge. The face of the city of Chicago was changing socially, economically, and racially. Black and Puerto Rican students began to replace white students in many of the schools. These new migrants from the south and other areas, due to cultural deprivation, poor schools, or missed opportunities, brought many serious learning problems with them. Their greatest deficiencies were in the area of

reading. Various programs such as after-school speech classes, reading clinics, and after-school remedial reading classes were implemented as a means of addressing these deficiencies, but they had little effect. A new superintendent, Benjamin C. Willis, was given the task and responsibility of providing these students with adequate opportunities for learning; an analysis of his tenure shows he failed in this endeavor.

Instructional Trends in Reading: 1960-1970

The period between the years of 1960 and 1970 represented many important changes politically, socially, and culturally. The civil rights movement marched full speed ahead, with blacks fighting for and demanding equal rights and equal treatment under the law. Women also joined the fight for equal treatment and equal pay. These two major movements had a significant impact on Chicago, its schools, and its curriculum.

As in previous years, the problem still existed as to how to effectively educate minority students, specifically black students, with their "supposedly" cultural, social, and developmental deficiencies. Studies and reports were done and many books were written about this particular population of students in an effort to determine the best teaching methods and materials to use with them. Robert J. Havighurst's The Public Schools of Chicago: Survey for the

Board of Education of the City of Chicago was one of most comprehensive reports written on this topic. He discussed the environmental factors, as well as others, and how these factors affected the child's learning abilities. His book aided many educators in better understanding the learning characteristics of these students.

This period found Chicago still engaged in "de facto" segregation, which was maintained through residental segregation. Students attended schools in their neighborhoods, which left little or no opportunities for the integration of black students with white students. The Chicago Urban League, after doing extensive research on the subject, discovered that expenditures for schools in black areas were considerably less than for schools in white areas. Also a low percentage of experienced teachers and a high percentage of substitutes were assigned to most black schools. In addition, overcrowding was a constant problem in the black schools. Dr. Willis was very uncooperative and unreceptive to suggestions or attempts to deliberately integrate the schools by redistricting attendance areas. His proposed solution was to build more schools in the black areas rather than allow transfers to less crowded white schools. Another of his solutions was the "Willis Wagons" which were portable classrooms; these were met with disdain and hostility. The demands for Dr. Willis' resignation were many and he finally resigned in May, 1966.

Dr. James F. Redmond succeeded Willis as superinten-

dent. The school system now had more students and even more problems. Black parents were, however, now demanding more than integration; they demanded that their children be taught about their African heritage and history, and that more black teachers and administrators be appointed. The appointment of Dr. Manford Byrd, Jr., as the first black deputy superintendent in the history of the Chicago Public Schools was one result of these demands. Another result was the changes in the curriculum and instructional materials, especially textbooks, used with minority students. Materials that were more sensitive and relevant were substituted for those that were geared primarily to white, middle-class values. Instructional committees selected books that represented racial, cultural, and ethnic groups and their contributions. To further demonstrate a change in attitudes, self-concepts, and self-perceptions, the term "negro" was discarded and replaced by "black," which, the people of that race felt, identified their ethnicity more accurately.

In spite of these changes and adjustments, one significant problem still remained--the problem of providing an effective reading program that, regardless of racial, social, or educational background, would ensure that every student would or could be taught to read. Prior to 1960, the Chicago Developmental Reading Program was being used in the Chicago Public Schools. In this program, students were taught and promoted by grades or retained according to their

progress each year. For example, a student in first grade was expected to master certain reading skills; if he/she successfully mastered these skills within that year, then the student would be promoted to second grade in September. If the skills were not mastered, then the student was retained in first grade for another year. Basal readers were the primary instructional materials.

In 1963, a new reading program called Continuous Progress/Mastery Learning (CP/ML) was introduced. This reading program was optional, but its implementation in all of the elementary schools was "highly encouraged." The philosophy and structure of this reading program differed from that of the Chicago Developmental Reading Program; one prominent difference was that instead of grades, such as first and second, Continuous Progress/Mastery Learning utilized levels such as A,B, C. Therefore, it was nongraded. The philosophy of CP/ML was based upon the concepts that:

- Learning is a continuous process.
- Each student progresses at his/her own rate.

  Each student masters skills and concepts according to his/her individual abilities.
- Each student has a certain readiness for the steps of learning according to his/her level of maturity and experience at any given point in the student's life.[7]

With this philosophy as a guiding factor, CP/ML was

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[7]Chicago Board of Education, Guidelines for the Primary Program of Continuous Development (Chicago: Board of Education, 1963), 1.

considered "the reading program" that would finally address the problem of how to successfully reach all students because it allowed the student to progress at his or her own rate of intellectual growth. Between kindergarten and eighth grade, the mastery of approximately 500 skills, distributed among 13 levels, was required; how fast or how slowly these skills were learned and the levels completed was up to the learner. The concept was that no child would experience failure because the rate of achievement would not be measured or assessed in time periods of semesters or by comparision with other students. Instead, the rate of achievement would be measured or assessed by mastery of the skills, regardless of the amount of time required by the student to complete the levels of the reading program. The 13 levels were divided into the Primary Program (Levels A,B,C,D,E,F,G,H); Intermediate Program (Levels J,K,L); and the Upper Program (Levels M, N). If a student progressed at the "average" pace of learning, he or she would normally complete elementary school in the expected time of eight years. If the learning pace was slower, then a student could possibly spend up to ten years in elementary school.

The Continuous Progress/Mastery Learning reading program had its supporters who felt that it would provide students with an equal chance at learning, developing self-confidence, and enhancing their self-esteem. It also had

its critics, who claimed that the nongraded reading program was confusing, cumbersome (with its numerous skills), and ineffective.

As with any instructional program, CP/ML had positive features as well as negative ones. The positive aspects have already been mentioned; the negative features included the vast number of skills, but more so, the confusing replacement of grades with levels. The manner in which the program was organized allowed the student to move from one level to another as fast as he or she could; however, this progress often resulted in students moving not only from one level to another in the same room, but also the physical movement from one classroom to another. Therefore, it was possible for Student A to start out in Room 104 with Ms. Smith in September, and be in Room 219 in October with Mr. Jones as the teacher. Unfortunately, the criteria used to advance students from one level to another was not always based on their abilities or mastery of the required skills. Some teachers used CP/ML to rid themselves of students with discipline problems or learning difficulities. If Johnny or Jane was a problem, the teacher would simply "push" him or her through the skills, punch out the holes on the Mastery Record Card (whether the skills had been mastered or not), and declare that the child had covered all the levels in that room and was, therefore, ready to move to another level which, of course, was in another room. The lack of skill

tests made it possible for teachers to do this.

Another negative feature of CP/ML was the nongraded levels. Educators, parents, and students have always been accustomed to grades; it was very easy to understand that a child in the fourth grade could expect to proceed to the fifth grade in September, if he or she did well. However, with the levels, parents and students were constantly asking which level corresponded to which grade. It was never quite clear to them where the student was academically; and to compound the problem, some teachers found it difficult to thoroughly explain the concept of levels because they did not fully understand it either. The Board's curriculum guide in reading, provided teachers with strategies and suggested activities with which to teach the various required skills. This writer, as a teacher at the Burke Elementary School from 1963 to 1970, had many first-hand experiences with this reading program and was able to make some pertinent observa- tions, one of which was that the program, when implemented correctly, worked quite well. Students, when allowed to learn at a reasonable pace, without the threat or pressure of keeping up with someone else, seemed to respond to this type of instruction. However, it was most imperative that teachers taught the skills at a steady pace and encouraged the students to progress through the levels as quickly as they could. Although the program was designed to allow students to

learn at their own pace or rate of learning, it was not designed to allow them to take years to pass one level.

One great drawback of CP/ML was the tremendous amount of paperwork and recordkeeping required, in addition to the constant assessments to determine if the student had mastered the skills. In spite of the management problems, the excessive paperwork, absence of skill tests, parental and student confusion, and, in some cases, the lack of knowledge about the program by teachers, the Continuous Progress/Mastery Learning program met with enough success that it was mandated to be the reading program for all of the Chicago Public Schools as of 1974.

Instructional Trends in Reading: 1970-1980

The years between 1970 and 1980 saw a continuation of the struggle by the schools to cope with the many problems that typically plague a large urban system the size of Chicago's. In the previous decade the focus was on the civil rights movement spearheaded by blacks and the impact it had on the curriculum and the instructional materials used to teach the various subjects, especially reading. Other ethnic groups followed the example set by blacks and also started to demand that the school system recognize their cultures, religions, and ethnicity. The terms multiethnic and multicultural became the "buzz" words in professional education.

Multiethnic-multicultural education impacted the curriculum and textbooks also. Books and stories were written about people of diverse ethnic groups; their contributions to society were made known. For the first time, many students had reasons to be proud of their backgrounds and histories. Prior to this era many of the books used in the schools to teach reading and other concepts had been characterized as being irrelevant, full of omissions or inadequate portrayals, and insensitive. With the changes in the contents of the books and stories, students were able to better understand and relate to the stories or situations. Therefore, teachers found that the students responded more readily to reading instruction.

In the Chicago Public Schools, prior to 1970, there was not an abundance of instructional materials available with which to specifically teach multiethnic-multicultual classes and the basal readers did not fill this void of needed materials. Basals were still the major instructional tool used in the public schools to teach reading; districts and schools still had the option of selecting the basal series they felt best met the needs of their student popuulation. The books had to be on the Chicago Board of Education's approved textbook lists. The basals most often selected were the ones published by Harcourt, Brace & World; Scott, Foresman and Company; Ginn and Company; Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.; Houghton Mifflin Company; and

Silver Burdett. These publishers had revised their previously white-oriented readers of the 1940s, 1950s, and early 1960s, to reflect a more balanced presentation of the different ethnic and racial groups. In fact, all the basal publishers had done this. For the most part, all the basals were, and still are today, basically the same in their format, structure, and the reading skills covered. For example, the series published by Scott, Foresman and Company consisted of readiness workbooks, which contained pictures and were used as an introduction to reading. The students were usually first exposed to print with the three small paperback booklets called pre-primers, followed by their first hard-covered book, the primer, and a first grade reader. For second grade, there were two books, for example, Friends and Neighbors 2[1] and More Friends and Neighbors 2[2]; the series continued up through the grades to grade eight. The methodology included the three or five steps of the directed reading lesson which involved preparing the students to read, reading the assigned story for that day, and various follow-up or enrichment activities. Although the basal readers were, for the most part, well organized, sequentially developed, and contained relevant stories, they still failed to effectively address the histories and the social and cultural characteristics and traits of various ethnic groups.

Therefore, in 1970, the curriculum department develop-

ed some mini-units on various ethnic groups in an effort to provide accurate information and knowledge about these groups to the general school population. Another objective was to provide and instill in the students of these ethnic and cultural groups, a sense of pride and a positive self-image. The development of such guides demonstrated the changes in the attitudes of society and the philosophies of the schools concerning the importance of recognizing that even though people are of different races, colors, and nationalities, they are still people who have many contributions to make. In 1972 an instructional guide appropriately titled Curriculum Guide for Teaching English as a Second Language: Kindergarten through Grade 6 was developed by the Chicago Board of Education. The curriculum focus was on the teaching of English, with Hispanics being the largest targeted group. This guide was instructionally comprehensive in that it provided clear and explicit goals and objectives; it also furnished teachers with techniques and activities to use with second language students. The four areas of language (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) were covered in such a way that even a first year, inexperienced teacher could have taught the classes. It was an excellent instructional guide that was greatly needed and long overdue.

In 1976, in further attempts to "catch up" or make up for all of the years of neglect, the Chicago Board of

Education developed and published another curriculum guide, A Handbook of Curriculum Models for Bilingual-Bicultural Programs, which served as a guide to school administrators and teachers who were responsible for and involved in programs for students of limited English-speaking ability.

The needs of bilingual-bicultural students were finally being fully recognized and addressed by the Board, as indicated by the following statement from this handbook:

> There are many students of limited English-speaking ability within the Chicago public schools who for the first time are having the experience of being members of a minority group living in an environment in which their ethnicity, language, culture, and social values are not fully comprehended or appreciated. Many of these students are currently enrolled in bilingual-bicultural programs or will be in the near future. Even now, bilingual and English-speaking students are entering such programs in ever-increasing numbers. Current legislation and trends are causing present bilingual-bicultural programs to expand and new programs to be initiated in schools which have not had such programs previously.
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> In a city in which the population is as mobile as Chicago's, it is important that children moving from one Chicago bilingual-bicultural program to another be provided with continuity in skill development.[8]

The ultimate goal of the Chicago Board of Education was to eventually have one curriculum for all the students in the system. The Board wanted its mandated reading program of Continuous Progress/Mastery Learning to serve every elementary student. However, considering the problems that some principals, teachers, and English language background

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[8]A Handbook of Curriculum Models for Bilingual-Bicultural Programs (Chicago: Board of Education, 1976), v.

students were experiencing with the program, this goal seemed unattainable.

When CP/ML was mandated as the reading program for all of the Chicago Public Schools in 1974, some changes within the program occurred, such as a reduction in the number of skills from 500 to 273; and the addition of skill tests, referred to as "Criterion-Referenced Tests" (CRTs). One major change, in 1977, was the introduction of a monitoring system, which discarded the former philosophy and practice of allowing students to work and progress at their own pace. Under the new monitoring system, students were expected to master a specific number of skills in a designated amount of time; the CRTs were administered as the test of mastery and those who passed 80 per cent of the test items were considered to have mastered the skills. These changes, however, failed to satisfy the charges that Chicago students "still were not learning how to read!" Reading scores remained below the national level. Many parents, educators, and the Chicago Teachers Union demanded that positive actions be taken to correct the problem. The Board's response was to introduce another reading program, the Chicago Mastery Learning Reading Program, which was to go into effect with the beginning of the new school year--September, 1981.

Conclusions

Someone once wrote, "In order to know where one is

going, it is important to know from whence one came." This statement is applicable to the topic of this dissertation. Knowing what has taken place in the past regarding reading instruction, reading techniques, and reading materials provides an educational guide or road map for present and future educators and curriculum developers, indicating the directions that should or should not be taken based on how well previous instructions, techniques, and materials have worked. History has identified the methods of teaching reading that did not work in the past and, therefore, probably will not work now or in the future.

In the early beginnings of reading instruction, the alphabet method was used to teach children how to read. This method involved having the students "spell" an unknown or unfamiliar word. Little or no emphasis was placed on the pronunciations or meanings of words; in addition, many nonsense or abstract words were used that had no relevancy for the students.

Next, phonics was introduced as "the method" to help students "sound out" the letters of words; Webster's "blue-backed" speller required the extensive use of phonics. The phonetic method worked effectively and, as a result, is still widely used in most American classrooms today; it is considered one of the most effective instructional strategies for teaching beginning reading. However, in Becoming a Nation of Readers, it is recommended that phonics instruction be taught during the first two or three years of school

school and that it should be discontinued by the end of the second grade. Hopefully, by this time, the student would be able to understand the relationship and connection between the letters of words and their sounds. The major difference between phonics instruction in the past and phonics instruction now is that the instruction is done in conjunction with word meanings and concepts.

Many educators did not approve of the phonetic method of teaching reading, but it seemed to work better than other methods. Then it was discovered that students could read or recognize whole words without sounding out the individual letters. Publishers began printing readers that utilized the word method, which is based on the belief that a word, not an individual letter, is the smallest unit of thought that a child needs in order to read. Supporters of this method felt it was not necessary that a child know the letters of the alphabet in order to read the whole word. The use of the word method, also referred to as the "look and say" and "whole word" method, had been advocated by Horace Mann and Worchester in the nineteenth century. In 1838, Mann stated in his Second Annual Report:

> The process of learning words and letters is toilsome, and progress will be slow, unless a motive is inspired before instruction is attempted. When a motive to learn exists, the first practical question respects the order in which letters and words are to be taught; i.e., whether letters, taken separately, as in the alphabet, shall be taught before words, or whether monosyllabic and familiar words shall be taught before letters.

> The mode of teaching words first, however, is not mere theory; nor is it new. It has now been practised for some time in the primary schools of the city of Boston, in which there are four or five thousand children, and is found to succeed better than the old mode. Presenting them with the alphabet is giving them what they never saw, heard, or thought of before. It is as new as algebra, and to the eye, not very unlike it. But printed names of known things are the signs of sounds which their ears have been accustomed to hear, and their organs of speech to utter. When put to learning the letters of the alphabet first, the child has no acquaintance with them, either by the eye, the ear, the tongue, or the mind; but if put to learning familiar words first, he already knows them by the ear, the tongue, and the mind, while this eye only is unacquainted with them. It can hardly be doubted, therefore, that a child would learn to name any twenty-six familiar words, much sooner than the twenty-six unknown, unheard and unthought letters of the alphabet.[9]

The word method, with some modifications, is still being used today in connection with other reading strategies.

The instructional materials and textbooks have changed over the years due to the fact that the purpose of reading has changed. In the early days, students were taught to read to enable them to read the Bible. Their stories and books contained religious and moral lessons. Reading was not taught as a means of expanding the students' intelligence; it was taught to help save their souls, build character, and make good citizens of them. Time and events changed the purpose of reading instruction as well as the materials and textbooks used. Textbooks have made great progress since the McGuffey readers; however, they have not

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[9]Horace Mann, The Republic and the School edited by Lawrence A. Cremin (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957), 39-40.

attained the status of being "the answer" as far as instructional materials and basal readers are concerned. History exposed how inadequate texts in the 1960s and 1970s failed to meet the needs of certain ethnic and cultural groups; how deletions, omissions, and distortions aided in degrading students and destroying their self-confidence and feelings of self-worth.

Textbook publishers and developers learned valuable lessons from these past experiences. Books and instructional guides now include the various racial, cultural, and religious groups and their accomplishments and contributions. Problems still exist as far as enough inclusion and accuracy of the information, but great strides have been made in this area. In the Chicago public school system, textbook committees composed of teachers and others evaluate perspective texts. Specific guidelines have been established---some of which are: the content must be relevant and accurate; ethnic, cultural, religious, and minority groups must be represented in an unbiased fashion; contributions by minority groups must be included; and that the textbooks be written so as to meet the needs of a diverse population of students.[10]

The history of reading instruction in the Chicago

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[10]Chicago Board of Education, Textbook Evaluation Form (Chicago: Board of Education, 1983).

Public Schools is, in essence, Chicago's history. Schools are indeed a reflection of the society of which they are a part. In looking at the reading programs in the Chicago Public Schools for the past fifty years or so, the impact of social, economic, cultural, and political events on the schools and the curriculum can be clearly seen; these events determined the "what and how" of what was to be taught. The reading trends, concepts, and methodologies generally followed the research and educational trends that were taking place in other parts of the United States.

Sometimes Chicago set the pace; at other times it followed the programs established by other school systems and other educational philosophies. For example, the Chicago Developmental Reading Program was not solely the "brain child" of the curriculum developers at the Board of Education; it was based on reading research conducted by experts in the field of reading and assessment such as Donald D. Durrell, W.E. Dolch, Edward L. Thorndike, Ruth Strang, William S. Gray, and Nila B. Smith. Since the program was a basic one, other states, such as Iowa, had similar reading programs in their school systems. Chicago's school superintendent, William H. Johnson, issued an "Inservice Bulletin," dated December 2, 1943, which stated the following:

> We are placing at the disposal of every elementary and high school the recently published Handbook on Reading prepared by the Department of Public Instruction of the

> State of Iowa. This Handbook provides many specific suggestions for implementing a developmental reading program in the elementary grades.[11]

Superintendent Johnson did not hesitate to utilize any and all materials he felt might enhance the reading program in the city's schools.

The developmental reading program had seemingly been effective across the country and its longevity of almost twenty years in the Chicago Public Schools validated its durability and effectiveness. The Chicago Developmental Reading Program was "a good old fashioned reading program," one with no frills, which did what it was designed to do--teach students to read. The impact of the war aided in helping the schools achieve their goal of having a literate society. In a charge to the teachers, Superintendent Johnson stated:

> The "essential industry" of the school is to train youth for citizenship in a democratic society. The first qualification for this important role, agreed upon by educators and laymen alike, is the ability to read. Time and again it has been pointed out that post-war problems must be solved by a generation that <u>can</u> and <u>does</u> read with a greater degree of skill than any preceding one was able to do.[12]

During this period of strife and turmoil, teachers felt obligated to teach and students were made to feel that it was their patriotic duty to learn; everyone was caught up in the spirit of doing whatever was required to help "the

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[11]William H. Johnson, "Inservice Bulletin No. 2" (Chicago Public Schools, December 2, 1943): 1.

[12]William H. Johnson, "Inservice Bulletin No. 1" (Chicago Public Schools, October 19, 1943): 2.

cause." The components of this reading program were educationally sound ones that included the teaching of reading skills and literature appreciation called "recreatory" reading. During this time, very few protests or demands were made concerning the equal representation of racial or ethnic groups in the basal readers being used in the Chicago Public Schools. Emphasis was placed on the process (how reading was taught) and the end result (did students learn to read?), rather than the type of instructional materials used.

The Chicago Board of Education's Continuous Progress/Mastery Learning (CP/ML) reading program, which advocated the educational philosophy that students could learn how to read and could achieve if allowed to learn and progress at their own individual rate of intellectual growth and maturity was, in the opinion of this writer who taught CP/ML, less successful. Although the premise sounded good, and worked when implemented correctly, a great deal of confusion surrounded this program. Due to the designation of "levels" rather than grades, many parents and some teachers had a difficult time determining the achievement level or actual grade of the children; the students were totally confused and would constantly ask, "What grade am I in this year?" The unrealistic number of skills to be taught and the unmanageable recordkeeping added to the unpopularity of this reading program. Another problem was

the "falsifying" of the number of skills mastered and the use of the level progression to eliminate discipline problems or slow learners from one's classroom.

Chicago has always seemed to have its own unique set of problems related to education, and to reading in particular. This can be attributed to the racially, ethnically, culturally, and religiously diverse population of the city, with each group demanding its "fair share" of the American dream, but unwilling to share a portion of it with anyone who is not one of them. The political system too often impacts upon the educational system. At the time of this writing, the Chicago School Board is appointed by the Mayor rather than elected by the people; this has always been the policy. The Board makes important decisions such as the construction and location of new schools. More importantly, it decides on instructional programs. Educators, historically, have had very little input in the instructional policies of the schools.

Teachers who have taught in the Chicago system for a long period of time have a saying, "This too shall pass," which reflects their philosophical outlook concerning the various and numerous changes and problems that occur in the instructional programs, especially in the area of reading, in the Chicago Public Schools. Regardless of the problems, the Chicago public school system has continued to attempt to implement reading programs that will meet the needs of all

its students. Over the past twenty years, reading programs such as the Chicago Developmental Reading Program and Continuous Progress/Mastery Learning program have been developed and implemented. These programs are representative of the commitment the system has in ensuring that Chicago becomes "a city of readers."

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APPENDIX A

Chicago Public Schools

Spring 1975

City-Wide Test Results

In April, the usual every-pupil testing program was carried out in all of Chicago's pre-high school public schools. In May a random sample of 300 students at every test level from 7 through 13 was randomly selected. Each of these 2,100 children was retested with an alternate form of the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills. This was an accuracy check program which was unprecedented in any large city. Figure 1 shows how the test-retest reliability figures compare to the publisher's normative figures.

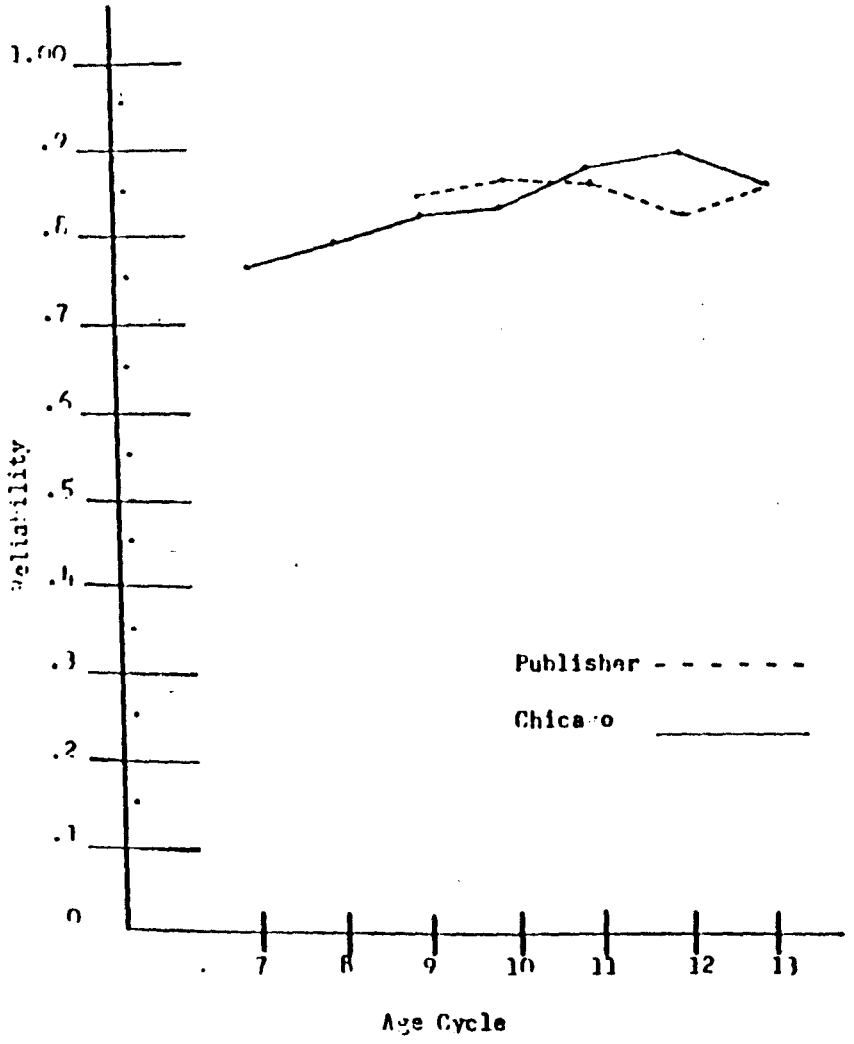
The retest correlations, as can be seen, tend to be very similar to the published figures. Based on these correlations, most test experts should agree with the statement that our testing, in terms of reliability, was very accurate. The ranking is constant. Students at the top in April are also on top in May; students at the bottom in April are also at the bottom in May. That's what reliability means.

Thus, the testing was reliable. The next logical question is this: What happened to performance between April and May? What happened to the mean scores? The answer: They dropped, on the average, between two and three items on a 60 to 80 point test. This equates to a two or three month decline. Why did they drop? Did they all drop consistently? We don't know why they were lower, but we think the explanation is this:

Remember that we had 70 testers go out to the schools last May for our accuracy check. The school principal didn't know his or her school had been selected until about 8:30 A.M. that morning, when our tester arrived. No one was prepared. To the kids, it was just another nice spring day. What happens in April? Most Chicago principals - and teachers - take the testing program very seriously. The press is at least partially responsible for this.

Press conferences, headlines, accusations by notable "experts," and all sorts of public response accompany the release of school-by-school figures each year. The teachers know long in advance when the testing days are scheduled. The students are ready. A lot of "win one for the Gipper" speeches, harkening back to Knute Rockne days, are given. And there is nothing wrong with this - each child is urged to give his or her maximum performance on the tests. Additionally, May is not a good testing time. Test experts urge educators to complete the

Figure 1 - Reliability of April to May Tests Compared to Published Figures*



*For ages 7 and 8 the publisher has not published alternate form reliabilities.

city-wide testing prior to May. These recommendations reflect recognition of a combination of end-of-year pressures and the difficulty of getting the students to concentrate inside as the weather outside improves. So a drop of three items on the mean, given that this is a test of between 60 and 80 items, depending on the grade level, is not too surprising.

The next question: Did any of the 70 schools tested drop significantly beyond the average drop of between two and three items? The answer is in the negative. Our random sample did not pick up a single school among that 70 which turned in April scores significantly higher than May scores beyond the overall two or three item drop in the mean which was addressed above.

So our testing was accurate in 1975, at least in the reliability sense. We don't know how accurate in this sense the program was in 1974, since no such accuracy study was carried out. We do know that our 1975 program was substantially more accurate in another sense than the 1974 program. In 1975 we had substantially more students scoring "real" scores and not "chance" scores. In fact, Figure 2 shows that the percentage of real scores increased from 62 percent to 91 percent, an increase of nearly 100,000 students.

Figure 2

Year	% "real"	% at "chance"	# of students who scored at or at or below "chance"
1974	62	38	110,200
1975	91	9	16,300

Increase in accurate tests for 1975 93,900

Now, what is meant by "real" and "chance" scores and is the distinction important?

A chance score - or perhaps more appropriately stated, a guessing score - is one that an average student could achieve by simply guessing on every item. If a test has 80 items, with four possible responses to each item in a multiple choice format, then a child is likely to get one-fourth of the items correct by marking all of the "b" options correct, or by simply making a pretty pattern on the answer sheet. When a child scores around 20 correct or lower, we only know one thing for sure: The test was too hard for that child. We have no diagnostic information. We have no relative information on the child's strengths and weaknesses. In 1974, something like one of every three of our students was given a test which was too difficult.

What then is a "real" score? A "real" score is one wherein we are sure the child made positive and correct responses to some number of items in the test. A "real" score is an accurate score in that it is one which reflects a number correct which could almost never be obtained by simply guessing. The child, to obtain this accurate score, almost had to be making positive and correct responses to the items in the test.

Is it important to have these accurate scores? Of course it is, if we are to make intelligent statements about student growth - which is really the name of the game in these developmental years. If a child scores at chance level in 1974 and again at chance level in 1975, what do we know about that child's growth? Nothing - we only know that a too-difficult test was administered two years in a row. However, when a child scores beyond the chance range two years in a row, we can be sure that the child responded positively and actively on both occasions. We know, in short, how much the child's real growth was over this span.

We now have an accurate baseline for determining future growth. We have some 91 percent of our students now in the accurate range, and we can increase this figure to near 100 percent with the spring testing in 1976.

The reduction in the number of students at chance level was accomplished through a fairly simple administrative change in the way tests were administered. In the past tests were assigned to a child as a function of his age or grade. Eight-year-olds received level 8 and 12-year-olds were given level 12. If level 12 was too difficult, many children simply gave up and guessed. From the 1974 results, we learned that nearly 100,000 of our students were scoring in the guessing range. Thus we followed relatively new publisher's directions and tested the child at his or her functioning reading level. The teacher was asked to approximate

where the child was currently functioning in reading and give the child a test consistent with this functioning level. Based on this change, we now can be sure that at least 91 percent of those tested between age cycles 7 and 13 can indeed read and make positive responses to printed questions. The figure will be substantially higher next year when the procedure of testing at functioning reading level is better understood by all teachers and administrators.

People like to make comparisons with test score results - and that seems to be a legitimate exercise in a free country. But a couple of important points regarding comparisons must be made in the name of fairness. The first point is this: The school is not the sole determiner of the relative amounts of learning which occur. Look at Figure 3 (Page v).

This figure shows how mean performance of 8-and 12-year-olds varies as a function of the poverty level of the neighborhood around the school. The poverty figures come from a 1975-76 proposal from Chicago schools. As you see from the trend in school performance from high to low poverty levels, a difference of about two grade equivalent years for the younger children, and over three grade equivalent years for the older ones, does exist. The graph does not say that school has no impact. One need only look at drops in test scores over the summer, when children are not in school, to debunk that erroneous interpretation. The graph says that when schools don't start with the same clientele, you cannot expect equal outcomes. Children in schools at the high poverty end of the scale may be hungry; they may be tired from sleeping in crowded apartments; they may be fearful; they may receive no school support at home. Equally incorrect is the presumption at the other end of the scale that these higher median scores are brought about totally by the schools. To imply, through a comparison of the test scores of low and high poverty schools, that the school is solely responsible for the relatively lower scores in the higher poverty areas, and the relatively higher scores at the other end, is to manifest a level of naivete which can be termed, at best, mischievous.

Thus, schools which have markedly different incoming clients should not be compared without taking this difference into consideration. The change in testing procedures - the change which put those extra 100,000 children into the "real score" class and out of the "chance" class - also has caused a systematic change in the scores for nearly all of the schools in the city.

Administering to a child a test which is too difficult essentially puts a floor under the child's possible performance. A chance score for level 14 of the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills is about 5.1. Thus, a child who cannot read at all, who is administered this level 14 and responds at random on the answer sheet, will likely obtain a score of 5.1 - indicating reading comprehension equivalent to the average fifth grader after one month in fifth grade. The child who responds at random to all the items on level 14 is likely to score somewhere near this score. About 5.1 called the "floor" of this test.

If the child is given a lower level of test - one that the child can actually read - the real reading

level will emerge. This real level - an accurate measure as described earlier - is likely to be lower than the chance score from the too-difficult test. In many schools, trading in the chance scores for real scores resulted in a substantial drop in median scores. The drops are up to 1.8 years in some schools - the larger the number of chance scores in 1974, the greater the drop will, in general, be. This is the key point: There is nothing in our 1975 data to suggest that real performance has dropped between 1974 and 1975. The reported drops are a function of the way we tested. That is, the drops are a function of our desire to get those 100,000 children out of the "chance" column and into the "real" one. Anyone who makes a conclusion from these data that children function less satisfactorily in 1975 than in 1974 is misrepresenting the information being presented.

The scores which appear on the school appendices include the three quartile grade equivalents at each age cycle from 7 through 13. Some definitions:

Age cycle: December 1 of the school year defines the age cycle for a child. The age cycle 7 children were all seven-year-olds by the first of December. In the old terminology, they would have been, usually, in second grade. The age cycle 11 children were all eleven-year-olds by December 1, 1974. In the old terminology, they would have been in sixth grade.

Q1, Q2, and Q3 are the three quartile grade equivalents. Q1 is the grade equivalent of the child whose performance exceeds one quarter of the students in that school; Q2 is the score of a child whose performance exceeds one half of the children (this is usually called the median); and Q3 is the score for the child in that school whose performance exceeds three quarters of the others.

In summary, then, the testing program is accurate - accurate in the sense of ranking pupils. This fact is based on the results of the accuracy check program of last spring. Additionally, the test scores for the spring of 1975 also have substantially more pupils scoring in the "real" range of the test, and out of the "chance" range.

The Chicago schools are using a good battery of tests. The battery will not go out of date for some years to come - the term of this administration, at least. The decisions to test at functioning reading level were made in an effort to improve the testing program. These alterations did bring about the desired correction, and no changes in test battery or administrative procedures is foreseen in the next few years.

This administration has designated reading improvement as a high-priority item. The battle to improve reading quite frequently involves those same low-performing students who scored in the "chance" range in years past. The 1975 data give us an excellent baseline. The success, or lack thereof, of individual programs and the overall effort to improve reading can now be accurately measured.

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
ABBOTT	2.2	2.6	3.0	2.5	3.0	3.7	3.2	3.8	4.2	3.0	4.1	4.7	3.7	4.4	5.2	3.8	4.6	5.6	3.9	4.8	6.3
ADAMS	2.3	3.2	4.2	3.0	4.0	4.8	3.9	4.6	5.2	3.9	4.7	6.1	5.6	6.3	7.8	6.7	7.8	8.6	6.8	7.9	9.6
AGASSIZ	2.1	2.7	3.6	2.7	3.7	4.2	3.3	4.0	4.8	3.5	4.5	5.5	4.1	5.6	6.5	4.7	6.4	8.8	5.1	6.8	8.0
ALCOTT	1.8	2.6	3.2	1.9	3.4	4.2	3.0	3.8	5.2	3.8	4.8	6.0	4.5	5.8	7.7	5.7	7.5	8.4	5.7	7.0	9.4
BRIDGE	1.8	2.4	3.2	2.7	3.6	4.2	3.1	3.9	4.4	3.6	4.1	4.8	3.7	4.7	5.3	3.9	4.6	5.1	-	-	-
EGELD	*	2.6	3.0	*	3.3	4.0	*	4.1	5.1	*	3.8	4.7	*	4.6	5.8	*	6.9	8.6	*	7.7	9.1
JENSEN	1.3	1.7	2.8	1.7	2.6	3.3	2.7	3.6	4.3	3.0	3.7	5.1	3.4	4.8	6.1	4.0	5.3	7.2	4.2	5.6	7.1
JENSEN EVGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	5.0
KOUR	2.3	2.9	3.4	3.2	3.7	4.4	3.1	3.8	4.7	3.9	4.8	5.9	4.0	5.4	6.3	5.2	6.6	7.5	5.8	6.9	7.9
STRONG, G.	2.9	3.5	4.0	3.2	4.0	4.6	4.6	5.1	6.2	5.0	6.0	7.2	5.8	7.1	8.5	7.1	8.2	9.4	7.3	9.0	9.7
BARTELME Br.	3.2	3.8	4.4	3.9	4.3	4.9	4.5	5.0	5.6	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
STRONG, L.	-	-	-	2.8	3.3	3.8	3.1	3.7	4.2	3.3	4.1	4.9	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-
STRONG, L.Br	1.9	2.6	3.0	2.2	2.7	3.2	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
[illegible]	1.7	2.3	3.1	1.9	2.6	3.1	2.8	3.4	4.2	3.1	3.9	4.6	3.5	4.3	5.4	4.1	4.9	5.7	4.2	5.3	6.7
[illegible]	2.6	3.3	4.1	2.7	3.5	4.5	3.1	4.2	5.1	3.9	5.1	6.0	4.4	5.4	7.1	4.8	6.8	8.0	5.8	7.7	9.3
[illegible] MIDDLE II	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	*	4.5	5.6	*	4.8	6.0	*	5.3	6.8
[illegible] PARK	2.0	2.6	3.2	2.5	3.2	3.9	3.4	4.0	4.7	3.6	4.5	5.2	4.2	5.0	6.0	4.5	5.4	6.9	4.6	5.6	7.3
[illegible]	2.3	3.1	3.9	2.9	3.5	4.1	3.3	4.1	5.0	3.9	5.0	5.8	4.5	5.3	6.5	4.9	6.1	7.8	5.3	6.9	9.1
[illegible]	1.7	2.3	3.2	2.7	3.2	4.2	2.9	3.5	4.2	3.5	4.2	4.8	3.6	4.4	5.6	3.5	4.1	5.4	ISD	ISD	ISD
[illegible]	3.0	3.3	4.2	3.3	4.3	4.9	3.4	4.4	5.4	4.2	5.1	6.8	4.5	6.0	7.0	4.9	6.2	8.5	5.5	6.3	8.0

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
BARRY	3.0	3.7	4.3	3.3	4.2	4.8	3.8	4.5	5.4	4.3	5.4	6.3	5.2	6.4	7.9	6.4	7.7	9.1	6.3	8.3	9.4
BARTON	*	2.8	3.3	*	3.0	3.8	*	3.7	4.4	*	4.5	5.4	*	4.5	5.6	*	5.1	6.6	*	5.9	7.4
BASS	2.3	2.9	3.5	1.9	2.8	3.5	2.8	3.3	4.0	2.7	3.7	4.7	3.3	4.5	5.9	3.2	4.2	6.2	ISD	ISD	ISD
BATEMAN	2.2	3.1	3.9	2.7	3.4	4.0	3.4	4.4	5.0	4.7	5.4	6.2	4.0	5.5	7.2	5.9	7.5	8.6	6.1	7.7	9.1
BATES	2.0	2.4	3.0	2.4	3.0	3.5	2.6	3.2	3.9	3.4	4.1	5.1	3.8	4.6	5.5	4.0	4.5	5.2	-	-	-
BEALE	1.9	2.7	3.3	2.7	3.3	3.9	2.8	3.8	4.7	3.5	4.3	5.0	4.1	4.8	5.6	2.7	4.3	5.0	-	-	-
BEALE UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6.3	7.0	7.8	5.8	7.1	8.2
BEARD	3.2	3.7	4.0	4.0	4.4	5.1	5.0	5.3	6.2	5.2	6.3	7.2	6.4	7.2	8.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
PERKINS Br.	ISD	ISD	ISD	3.4	4.5	4.9	4.0	5.1	6.2	4.8	6.2	8.2	6.4	7.2	8.1	-	-	-	-	-	-
BEAUBIEN	2.9	3.7	4.6	3.7	4.2	4.8	3.8	4.7	5.4	5.1	6.2	7.1	5.9	7.1	8.0	6.5	8.0	9.3	8.0	9.3	10.1
BEETHOVEN	1.3	1.6	1.9	1.6	2.6	3.3	2.4	3.1	3.6	2.5	3.3	4.2	2.8	3.9	4.9	2.8	3.6	4.6	2.6	3.5	4.3
BEIDLER	1.8	2.4	3.0	2.3	2.9	3.3	2.5	3.3	4.2	3.2	4.1	4.8	3.5	4.0	4.7	3.5	4.3	5.0	-	-	-
BELDING	2.7	3.3	4.0	3.7	4.3	4.8	4.0	4.7	5.7	4.5	5.5	6.8	5.0	6.3	7.1	6.8	7.8	9.2	7.5	8.6	9.5
BELL	2.9	3.5	4.3	3.2	4.0	4.9	4.0	4.8	5.3	4.6	5.3	6.2	5.6	6.5	7.7	5.3	6.0	8.0	6.0	8.0	9.4
BENNETT	2.2	3.0	3.6	2.8	3.6	4.2	3.1	4.0	4.7	3.7	4.5	5.2	4.4	5.2	6.1	5.1	6.5	7.8	5.0	6.4	8.1
SHIDE Br.	2.9	3.5	4.3	3.9	4.3	4.9	4.2	4.6	5.1	4.8	5.1	5.7	4.9	5.2	6.1	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-
BETHUNE	1.7	2.5	3.0	2.4	3.1	3.6	2.7	3.1	3.6	3.1	3.7	4.3	3.3	4.2	4.8	3.8	4.4	5.3	3.8	4.7	5.3
BIRNEY	1.4	2.0	2.5	1.9	2.5	3.2	2.5	3.0	3.5	3.0	3.8	5.0	3.1	4.2	5.3	3.7	4.5	6.2	4.4	5.3	6.1
BLACK	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.4	5.0	5.4	5.2	5.7	6.7	5.4	6.2	7.8	6.2	8.0	9.5	7.0	8.8	10.1
BLACK ANNEX	2.8	3.4	4.0	3.4	3.9	4.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
BLAINE	2.6	3.1	3.8	2.7	3.2	4.0	2.9	3.6	4.6	3.6	4.5	5.9	4.4	5.3	6.6	4.7	6.3	8.1	5.4	7.2	9.0
BOND	1.7	2.3	2.8	2.2	2.9	3.7	2.8	3.5	4.3	3.3	4.1	4.9	3.7	4.6	5.4	3.9	4.9	5.7	4.4	5.1	6.7
BONTEMPS	1.5	1.8	2.7	2.0	3.1	3.6	2.7	3.3	3.8	2.7	3.6	4.3	2.8	3.9	4.9	3.7	4.5	5.1	4.2	5.1	6.6
BOONE	3.2	3.7	4.3	4.1	4.6	5.2	4.2	5.0	6.2	4.9	5.7	6.9	5.7	7.1	8.3	6.8	8.4	9.7	7.6	9.4	10.7
BOUSFIELD SASC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD
BRADWELL	1.8	2.7	3.2	2.6	3.3	4.0	2.6	3.6	4.3	3.1	4.1	4.9	3.3	4.4	5.2	4.2	5.0	6.0	4.5	5.5	7.0
BRAINARD	1.5	1.8	2.2	2.1	2.5	3.2	2.4	2.6	2.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BRENAN	1.6	2.1	2.9	2.2	2.9	3.6	2.6	3.2	4.2	2.9	3.8	4.8	3.6	4.6	5.7	3.7	4.5	5.3	ISD	ISD	ISD
POE Br.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD	*	5.3	6.8	*	5.5	7.2
BRENNEMANN	1.3	2.2	3.3	2.6	3.2	3.9	2.7	3.5	4.7	3.2	4.0	5.1	3.6	4.6	5.6	4.0	5.1	7.4	4.7	6.2	8.4
BRENNEMANN Br.	2.8	3.2	3.9	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BRENTANO	2.4	3.0	3.5	2.1	3.0	4.5	3.0	3.7	4.9	3.8	4.5	5.8	3.6	4.6	6.6	4.3	5.8	7.3	4.8	6.3	8.1
BRIDGE	2.7	3.3	4.0	3.3	4.3	4.9	4.0	4.5	5.1	4.9	5.7	6.8	5.5	6.4	7.8	6.4	7.6	8.6	7.6	8.8	9.7
BRIGHT	2.5	2.8	3.3	2.8	3.2	4.0	3.6	4.3	5.0	4.2	4.7	5.5	4.7	5.7	6.8	5.8	6.5	7.5	5.7	6.6	7.7
BROWN	1.9	2.5	3.0	2.6	3.0	3.9	2.7	3.3	4.2	3.0	3.8	4.4	3.3	4.4	5.4	4.0	4.7	5.8	3.8	4.4	5.0
BROWNELL	1.2	1.9	2.8	2.2	2.8	3.6	2.7	3.4	4.1	3.4	3.9	4.6	3.9	4.4	5.4	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-
BRYANT	1.8	2.3	3.0	2.2	2.7	3.2	2.8	3.3	3.7	2.9	3.8	4.6	3.4	4.3	5.2	3.5	4.2	5.2	3.7	4.6	5.6
BRYN MAWR	1.6	2.4	3.2	2.1	3.0	3.7	2.8	3.6	4.6	3.2	4.3	5.0	3.6	4.6	5.7	4.3	6.4	8.2	5.2	6.7	8.0
BRYN MAWR Br.	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.9	3.4	3.8	ISD	ISD	ISD	5.5	7.0	8.2	4.3	5.1	6.2	4.0	4.6	5.2
BUCKINGHAM	1.8	2.5	3.0	3.0	3.7	4.3	3.8	4.5	5.3	3.7	4.8	5.6	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
BUCKINGHAM Br.	1.4	2.4	3.3	2.5	3.4	4.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BUDLONG	2.7	3.2	4.1	2.6	3.6	4.8	3.9	4.8	5.7	4.4	5.4	6.5	5.8	6.8	8.0	6.4	7.8	9.0	7.2	8.5	9.6
BUNCHE	2.5	3.1	3.5	2.0	2.8	3.4	2.3	3.0	3.8	2.9	3.7	4.4	2.8	3.8	5.1	3.9	5.0	6.0	4.0	5.1	6.7
BURBANK	2.3	2.9	3.5	2.8	3.7	4.4	3.3	4.2	5.4	4.2	5.9	6.8	4.9	6.1	7.5	5.7	7.4	8.6	5.6	6.9	8.5
BURKE	1.9	2.5	3.1	2.4	2.9	3.6	3.0	3.7	4.1	3.4	4.0	4.9	2.8	3.6	4.2	-	-	-	-	-	-
BURLEY	1.6	2.0	2.9	1.9	2.9	4.2	3.0	4.1	4.8	3.3	4.5	5.8	4.2	5.7	6.9	4.4	5.6	7.5	5.3	6.6	8.3
BURNHAM	2.0	2.9	3.3	2.7	3.3	4.5	3.0	3.9	4.8	4.2	4.9	5.5	3.9	4.9	5.9	-	-	-	-	-	-
ANTHONY Br.	2.6	3.5	4.3	3.0	3.7	4.4	3.2	4.1	4.4	3.5	4.4	5.1	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-
GOLDSMITH Br.	1.8	2.9	3.3	2.4	3.0	3.7	3.2	4.0	4.7	3.9	4.5	4.9	3.4	4.0	4.4	-	-	-	-	-	-
BURNS	-	-	-	2.1	2.7	3.2	2.9	4.0	4.7	3.4	4.3	5.4	3.8	4.9	6.1	3.9	5.2	7.1	4.2	5.4	6.8
BURNS Br.	2.1	3.1	4.2	2.9	3.6	4.4	2.6	3.4	3.9	3.0	3.6	4.5	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-
BURNSIDE	1.8	2.5	3.0	2.5	3.1	3.9	2.7	3.2	4.1	3.2	4.2	5.0	4.3	5.1	5.8	4.5	5.4	6.8	4.5	5.3	6.9
BUSH	1.3	1.6	2.6	1.7	2.6	3.3	2.0	2.5	3.2	2.6	3.4	5.1	3.2	4.3	5.6	4.5	5.0	6.9	4.2	5.2	7.2
BUSHROUGHS	2.6	3.2	3.7	2.9	3.7	4.3	3.9	4.3	5.0	4.1	4.7	5.3	4.5	5.3	6.4	4.8	5.7	7.2	5.1	6.5	7.9
BYFORD	*	2.8	3.4	*	3.1	3.7	*	3.4	4.1	*	3.8	4.7	*	4.4	5.9	*	5.7	6.9	*	6.2	7.4
BYRD	1.8	2.5	3.1	2.5	3.1	3.6	3.0	3.5	4.1	3.5	4.2	4.6	3.7	4.6	5.6	4.5	5.4	6.9	4.1	4.6	5.6
BYRNE	3.0	3.5	4.3	3.9	4.5	5.1	4.3	4.8	5.7	5.7	6.3	7.3	5.8	7.0	8.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
CALDWELL	2.0	3.0	3.5	2.6	3.3	4.3	3.1	3.9	4.8	3.5	4.4	5.6	4.2	4.9	6.2	5.0	6.6	8.2	5.1	6.5	8.0
McDOWELL Br.	2.2	3.0	4.2	3.1	3.9	4.6	4.0	4.6	5.2	4.1	4.7	6.2	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-
CALHOUN NORTH	2.1	2.8	3.2	2.2	2.8	3.2	2.7	3.3	4.1	2.9	3.8	4.7	3.2	4.3	5.6	3.1	4.0	4.5	ISD	ISD	ISD

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
CAMERON	1.9	2.7	3.2	2.6	3.1	3.9	2.7	3.6	4.4	3.1	4.2	5.1	3.7	4.5	5.7	4.2	5.3	6.4	4.4	5.5	6.7
CANTY	2.8	3.2	3.9	3.3	4.1	4.8	3.8	4.8	5.7	4.8	5.7	6.5	6.0	7.5	8.4	6.1	7.6	9.1	7.5	8.6	10.1
CARNEGIE	2.1	2.6	3.2	2.8	3.7	4.4	3.6	4.0	4.4	4.1	4.8	5.3	4.8	6.0	7.1	-	-	-	-	-	-
CARPENTER	*	2.5	3.1	*	3.0	3.8	*	2.9	3.6	*	3.8	5.0	*	4.1	4.9	*	4.6	5.9	*	4.8	6.8
CARROLL	3.1	3.7	4.8	3.6	4.3	4.8	4.5	5.3	6.5	5.4	6.2	7.4	5.8	7.0	7.8	7.7	8.6	9.5	8.1	9.3	10.5
ROSENWALD Br.	3.5	3.8	4.2	4.2	4.7	5.4	4.5	5.0	5.6	4.6	6.2	7.4	5.7	7.3	8.5	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-
CARTER	1.7	2.3	3.0	2.2	2.9	3.6	2.7	3.2	4.0	3.1	3.7	4.4	3.3	3.9	4.9	2.3	3.6	4.3	ISD	ISD	ISD
CARVER PRIMARY	1.2	1.7	2.3	1.8	2.7	3.3	3.0	4.4	4.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
CARVER UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.3	5.1	6.3	4.0	5.0	6.4
CASSELL	3.0	4.3	4.8	4.2	4.7	5.3	4.0	4.9	6.2	5.7	6.6	7.4	6.3	7.5	8.2	-	-	-	-	-	-
KELLER Br.	3.3	4.1	4.9	3.8	4.4	5.4	4.7	5.2	6.3	5.7	6.3	7.0	6.3	7.1	8.2	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-
CATHER	1.7	2.3	3.2	2.2	2.9	3.5	2.2	3.2	4.2	3.0	3.8	4.8	3.3	4.1	4.9	3.9	4.7	5.5	4.3	5.1	6.3
CHALMERS	*	2.0	2.8	*	2.5	3.0	*	3.3	4.1	*	3.7	4.5	*	4.2	5.0	*	4.8	5.9	*	5.0	5.8
CHAPPELL	2.8	3.4	4.2	3.7	4.2	4.8	3.9	4.6	5.3	4.4	5.2	6.7	4.8	6.5	7.3	5.4	7.5	8.7	6.0	7.1	8.2
CHASE	1.6	2.6	3.3	2.2	2.8	3.6	2.5	3.3	4.4	3.2	4.2	5.6	3.4	4.5	6.3	4.0	5.6	6.8	4.7	6.4	8.2
CHOPIN	1.2	1.8	2.3	2.1	2.8	3.3	2.7	3.3	4.2	2.6	3.4	4.3	3.0	3.9	5.3	3.3	4.1	4.9	-	-	-
CHOPIN UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	6.9	x	x	7.0
CHRISTOPHER SPEC.	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD
CLARK MIDDLE	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD	3.6	4.5	5.4	4.0	4.9	6.0	4.4	5.4	6.8
CLAY	3.5	4.0	4.3	3.5	4.2	4.9	4.0	4.7	5.6	5.0	5.7	6.6	6.3	7.2	8.0	6.5	7.9	9.0	7.2	8.5	9.4

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
CLEVELAND	2.4	3.0	3.7	3.6	4.4	5.0	4.5	5.1	5.6	4.5	5.6	7.0	5.2	6.6	7.6	6.3	7.8	8.9	6.0	8.0	9.2
CLINTON	3.3	3.6	4.0	3.9	4.4	5.1	3.5	4.6	5.8	5.0	6.3	7.1	6.1	7.3	8.5	7.5	8.2	9.5	7.9	9.6	10.7
COLDEN	3.3	4.3	4.8	4.0	4.6	5.4	4.8	5.8	6.6	5.0	6.2	6.9	5.3	7.6	8.8	6.8	8.1	9.3	7.5	9.0	10.4
SHELDON Br.	2.8	3.8	4.4	4.0	4.6	5.6	5.1	5.7	6.3	5.2	5.9	7.3	6.5	7.8	8.4	-	-	-	-	-	-
COLE CPEC	3.2	3.7	4.7	3.8	4.1	4.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
COLES	2.0	2.6	3.5	2.9	3.3	4.0	2.5	3.3	4.2	3.2	4.4	5.8	3.9	4.7	5.7	4.2	5.3	7.1	4.6	5.9	7.5
COLMAN	1.3	1.7	2.8	2.5	3.2	3.7	2.6	3.3	3.9	2.6	3.1	3.6	3.2	3.9	4.8	3.6	4.2	4.9	3.8	4.5	5.2
COLMAN Br.	-	-	-	1.8	2.6	3.1	2.0	2.9	3.4	3.1	3.5	4.3	2.6	3.0	3.7	-	-	-	-	-	-
COLUMBUS	*	1.6	2.4	*	2.5	3.2	*	2.9	4.0	*	3.4	4.3	*	4.4	5.3	*	4.2	5.2	-	-	-
COOK	1.7	2.6	3.3	2.6	3.3	4.3	3.0	3.7	4.4	3.5	4.5	5.3	3.7	4.5	5.9	4.4	6.1	7.4	4.7	6.5	7.9
COOLEY ENGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	4.5
COOLEY LOC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	*	5.8	7.2
COOLEY	2.6	3.1	4.0	3.0	3.7	4.5	3.3	4.5	5.2	4.1	5.1	5.8	4.6	5.5	6.6	5.3	7.1	8.6	5.1	7.5	8.7
COOPER	1.9	2.5	3.1	2.1	2.9	3.5	2.7	3.4	4.6	3.4	4.3	5.4	2.8	3.9	4.4	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-
COOLEY ENGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.7	4.4	5.4	4.0	5.2	6.3	4.1	4.9	6.1
COPERNICUS	2.8	2.5	3.3	2.6	3.2	4.0	2.9	3.7	4.6	3.2	4.0	4.7	3.6	4.6	5.7	4.2	4.9	5.5	4.6	5.4	6.2
CRESCENT	2.3	2.9	3.7	2.3	3.2	4.0	2.8	3.8	4.5	3.4	4.2	5.4	3.8	4.9	6.4	4.5	5.6	7.2	4.5	5.4	7.1
CRESTON	1.7	2.3	2.7	1.9	2.8	3.3	2.8	3.5	4.5	3.4	4.5	5.6	3.3	4.5	6.1	4.4	5.5	7.1	4.4	5.6	7.6
CROWN	1.8	2.6	3.0	2.1	2.8	3.5	2.6	3.3	4.2	3.2	3.9	4.8	3.4	4.1	5.1	3.4	3.8	4.5	-	-	-
CUFFE	1.7	2.4	3.2	2.8	3.3	4.3	3.5	4.1	4.7	3.6	4.3	4.9	4.0	4.9	6.1	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
CUTLER	2.3	3.0	4.0	2.9	3.6	4.2	3.0	3.8	4.3	3.5	4.1	4.9	4.3	5.2	6.9	4.8	5.8	7.8	4.7	6.2	7.5
DARWIN	2.4	2.8	3.2	2.6	3.1	3.8	2.5	3.5	4.5	3.1	4.0	4.9	3.8	5.0	6.0	4.5	5.5	6.8	4.4	5.9	7.7
DAVIS	2.8	3.4	4.3	3.1	4.0	4.5	3.3	4.0	4.4	4.0	5.3	6.6	4.6	5.8	7.1	5.6	6.8	7.8	6.4	7.7	9.0
DAWES	2.8	3.5	4.5	3.6	4.4	5.2	4.7	5.2	6.1	5.4	6.0	6.8	6.0	7.2	8.2	6.8	8.0	9.1	7.3	8.8	9.8
MICHELSON Br.	3.0	3.6	4.5	4.1	4.5	5.3	4.0	4.9	5.5	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
DECATUR	2.9	3.6	3.9	4.0	4.4	4.7	4.8	5.1	6.0	5.6	6.2	7.4	6.6	7.5	7.8	-	-	-	-	-	-
DELANO	*	1.9	2.9	*	2.9	3.6	*	2.9	3.6	*	3.5	4.2	*	4.0	4.7	*	4.1	4.7	ISD	ISD	ISD
DENEEN	2.2	2.5	3.1	2.6	3.6	4.4	2.7	3.7	4.4	2.9	3.7	5.2	4.0	5.4	6.2	4.1	5.1	7.8	4.9	6.4	8.4
DE PRIEST	2.4	2.9	3.3	2.1	2.9	3.6	2.8	3.5	4.2	2.6	3.7	4.4	2.7	3.5	4.5	2.4	3.1	3.9	-	-	-
DETT	1.5	1.9	2.4	2.2	2.7	3.3	2.7	3.1	3.7	3.0	3.6	4.4	3.2	4.0	4.8	2.7	3.7	4.4	ISD	ISD	ISD
DEVER	2.7	3.2	3.8	3.1	4.0	4.7	4.2	4.9	5.4	4.6	5.9	6.8	5.3	6.8	7.8	6.0	7.7	8.8	5.9	7.4	9.6
DEWEY	1.3	2.0	2.9	1.9	2.8	3.7	2.9	3.5	4.2	2.9	4.0	4.9	3.0	3.6	4.1	-	-	-	-	-	-
DICKENS SPEC	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
EDISON	2.8	3.4	4.0	3.0	3.8	4.6	4.0	4.8	5.7	5.3	6.2	7.1	5.7	6.7	8.0	6.1	7.4	8.9	7.2	8.6	9.6
DISNEY MAGNET	2.1	3.0	3.7	3.0	3.8	4.8	3.8	4.6	5.3	4.3	5.4	6.8	4.5	5.8	7.4	5.6	7.3	9.4	5.8	8.5	10.1
DIXON	2.4	2.8	3.4	3.4	3.9	4.4	3.7	4.3	5.1	4.2	5.1	5.8	4.3	5.8	7.2	5.5	6.9	8.1	6.0	7.6	8.9
DODGE	1.6	2.0	2.5	1.7	2.7	3.8	2.5	3.2	4.0	3.0	3.5	4.3	3.5	4.6	5.6	3.7	4.7	6.3	4.2	5.4	6.7
DONIAT	1.2	1.9	2.9	1.9	2.6	3.2	2.4	3.2	4.1	2.6	4.0	4.6	3.9	4.5	5.6	3.3	3.9	4.7	-	-	-
DONOGHUE	x	x	2.8	x	x	3.2	x	x	3.4	x	x	4.3	x	x	5.6	x	x	6.6	x	x	7.4
DOOLITTLE PRIMARY	1.5	2.1	2.8	2.2	2.9	3.6	2.6	3.2	4.0	2.7	3.3	3.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
DOOLITTLE I/U	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.7	3.3	4.1	3.4	4.0	4.9	3.6	4.4	5.4	3.9	4.9	6.1	4.6	5.7	6.8
DORE	2.7	3.2	4.4	3.1	4.2	4.6	3.6	4.7	5.5	4.5	5.3	6.5	6.1	7.0	8.0	6.3	7.6	8.3	6.5	8.1	9.7
BLAIR Br.	3.0	3.3	3.8	3.6	4.1	4.6	4.0	5.1	5.8	5.2	5.7	6.4	5.0	6.3	7.7	6.6	7.5	9.2	ISD	ISD	ISD
DOUGLAS	2.0	2.8	3.7	2.8	3.1	3.8	2.8	3.5	4.2	3.2	4.0	4.5	3.5	3.9	5.6	4.5	5.7	7.3	4.6	5.9	7.2
DRAKE	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	4.1	5.0	6.0	4.8	5.7	7.0
SOUTH COMMONS Br.	2.2	3.1	3.6	3.0	4.2	5.0	3.1	4.1	5.0	4.3	4.9	5.4	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-
DRAKE EVGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	5.2
DREW	1.0	1.9	3.2	2.7	3.4	4.1	3.1	3.8	4.6	3.4	4.2	5.2	3.5	4.0	4.6	-	-	-	-	-	-
DRUMMOND	1.6	2.8	3.4	2.7	3.1	4.1	3.1	3.8	4.5	3.5	4.7	5.2	4.1	4.8	6.5	4.1	5.3	6.9	5.3	6.5	9.0
DUBOIS	2.1	3.0	4.0	2.5	3.0	4.0	2.8	3.6	5.2	3.6	4.2	5.1	4.3	4.8	5.6	4.6	5.5	6.4	5.5	6.8	8.1
DUFFY	2.5	2.9	3.9	3.2	4.1	5.1	4.2	4.8	5.8	4.4	6.2	7.3	6.6	7.7	8.3	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-
WIGGIN Br.	2.7	3.2	4.1	3.9	4.4	5.0	4.1	4.8	5.9	5.3	6.0	6.7	5.5	6,9	7.8	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-
DULLES	1.7	2.7	3.5	2.6	3.2	3.7	2.8	3.3	4.3	3.1	3.8	4.5	3.4	4.2	5.1	2.7	3.6	4.2	-	-	-
DULLES Br.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-
DUMAS	1.7	2.2	2.9	2.7	3.2	3.8	2.7	3.5	4.4	3.3	4.0	4.5	3.8	4.5	5.1	3.9	4.6	5.6	-	-	-
DUNNE	2.5	3.1	3.9	2.8	3.6	4.0	3.0	3.9	4.9	3.5	4.1	4.8	4.3	5.5	7.2	5.0	6.6	8.0	4.7	6.2	8.0
DUSABLE UCC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	*	4.5	5.5	*	4.3	5.2
DVORAK	1.8	2.5	3.3	2.4	2.9	3.9	2.7	3.4	4.3	2.7	3.6	4.4	3.1	4.5	5.6	2.5	3.5	4.2	ISD	ISD	ISD
DYETT MIDDLE	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD	3.6	4.4	5.3	3.9	4.9	6.1	4.1	5.0	6.5
EARLE	x*	x	2.9	x	x	3.2	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	x	x	5.5	x	x	6.2	x	x	7.0

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
HERMITAGE PK.Br.	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.0	3.7	4.3	3.3	4.1	4.8	3.2	3.7	4.4	-	-	-	-	-	-
60TH & MARSHFIELD Br.	-	-	-	2.4	2.8	3.4	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
EBERHART	2.7	3.5	4.1	3.7	4.4	4.9	4.4	5.1	5.8	5.2	6.2	6.9	5.9	6.8	7.9	6.8	8.0	9.5	7.8	9.1	10.0
EBINGER	3.0	3.5	4.5	3.5	4.3	4.8	4.0	4.9	5.4	5.0	5.8	6.9	5.7	7.1	8.0	7.4	8.4	9.5	8.0	9.7	11.0
STOCK BR.	3.4	3.9	4.7	3.2	4.6	5.1	4.0	5.0	5.6	4.8	5.4	5.9	5.8	6.8	8.5	-	-	-	-	-	-
EDGEBROOK	3.3	4.2	4.6	3.9	4.8	5.3	4.6	5.1	6.0	5.0	6.6	7.7	6.8	7.7	8.7	7.8	8.6	9.6	8.5	10.0	11.2
EDISON	3.2	3.8	4.3	4.1	4.7	5.5	4.4	5.1	6.1	4.8	6.1	7.1	6.4	7.7	8.5	7.5	8.7	9.8	8.6	9.5	10.8
EDISON Br.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
EDWARDS	2.6	3.1	3.8	2.2	3.3	4.2	3.9	4.7	5.3	4.4	5.2	6.0	4.6	6.8	8.0	6.4	7.6	9.3	6.0	7.6	9.4
EIKSTEIN	*	2.0	2.9	*	2.7	3.2	*	2.8	3.6	*	3.4	4.2	*	3.8	4.8	*	3.8	4.3	ISD	ISD	ISD
ELLINGTON	1.6	2.2	2.9	2.6	3.2	4.0	2.8	3.5	4.3	3.1	3.7	4.5	2.5	3.3	4.0	2.0	2.5	3.2	-	-	-
ELLINGTON Br.	1.9	2.6	3.2	1.7	2.3	3.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
EMMET	*	1.8	2.5	*	2.8	3.6	*	3.3	4.3	*	3.2	4.2	*	4.6	5.8	*	5.1	6.5	*	5.4	6.9
ERICSON	1.7	2.4	2.8	2.0	3.0	3.4	2.6	3.3	3.9	3.1	3.8	4.8	3.1	4.1	5.1	3.8	4.5	5.2	4.0	5.0	6.5
ESMOND	1.9	2.9	3.7	2.3	2.9	4.1	2.8	3.4	4.2	3.3	4.1	4.6	3.5	4.4	5.4	4.4	5.3	6.7	4.3	5.3	6.6
EVERETT	2.9	3.2	3.6	3.2	4.1	4.8	4.2	4.8	5.5	4.4	5.3	6.2	5.0	6.3	6.8	6.1	7.4	8.8	6.6	7.8	9.3
EVERS	2.2	2.8	3.3	3.0	3.5	4.3	3.5	4.2	4.8	3.8	4.5	5.4	4.4	5.0	6.1	5.1	6.7	8.4	5.1	6.8	8.1
FALCONER	2.2	2.8	3.8	3.1	4.0	4.7	3.4	4.2	5.0	4.5	5.3	6.2	4.9	6.2	7.2	5.7	7.6	8.9	5.9	7.5	6.9
FARADAY	1.5	2.1	2.9	1.8	2.7	3.3	2.3	3.3	4.2	3.1	3.8	4.6	3.4	4.3	5.3	3.5	4.0	4.8	ISD	ISD	ISD
FARNSWORTH	2.9	3.6	4.5	3.8	4.5	4.9	4.1	4.9	5.8	4.9	5.8	7.0	5.2	6.1	8.1	6.6	8.0	8.9	8.1	8.8	10.2

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
FOREST GLEN Br.	3.4	4.0	4.4	3.6	4.3	5.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
FARKER	-	-	-	1.7	2.3	3.1	2.3	3.0	3.6	3.0	3.6	4.3	3.1	3.9	4.8	2.5	3.3	3.9	4.1	4.8	5.7
FARREN Br.	1.7	2.3	3.0	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD
FELSENTHAL	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	3.7	4.5	5.8	4.3	5.4	7.3
FERMI	1.6	2.2	3.0	2.0	2.7	3.3	2.7	3.3	4.3	2.8	3.6	4.5	3.6	4.4	5.0	4.1	4.8	5.9	4.0	5.4	7.0
FERNWOOD	1.8	2.8	3.4	2.5	3.1	3.9	2.9	3.6	4.4	3.0	4.0	5.0	3.6	4.9	5.8	4.1	5.4	7.1	4.8	6.3	7.8
FIELD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	6.0	7.7	9.8	6.3	7.7	9.8
FISKE	1.8	2.6	3.0	2.2	2.7	3.5	3.2	3.9	4.6	3.7	4.3	5.3	3.8	4.7	5.3	4.1	4.6	5.7	4.9	6.0	7.3
FORRESTVILLE UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD	4.4	5.0	5.8	4.2	5.0	5.9
FORT DEARBORN	2.2	2.8	3.5	2.8	3.7	4.4	3.1	3.9	4.5	3.5	4.3	5.0	4.0	4.6	5.4	4.4	5.2	6.2	4.4	5.5	7.0
FOSTER PARK	1.8	2.5	3.2	2.6	3.1	3.6	2.9	3.9	4.5	3.5	4.3	5.1	3.9	4.8	5.6	4.2	5.4	7.0	4.6	6.0	7.6
FRANKLIN	1.4	2.0	2.7	2.1	2.8	3.0	1.8	2.9	3.5	3.1	3.7	4.3	2.8	3.9	4.9	3.4	4.3	5.3	4.2	5.1	6.8
FRAZIER	*	2.3	2.8	*	3.0	3.5	*	3.0	3.8	*	3.2	4.5	*	4.3	5.3	*	5.1	7.4	*	5.7	7.3
FULLER	1.7	2.5	2.9	1.8	2.8	3.6	3.0	3.7	4.3	3.4	4.2	4.9	3.7	5.0	6.3	3.3	4.1	5.5	-	-	-
FULTON	1.9	2.6	3.3	2.1	3.0	4.1	2.7	3.5	4.4	3.3	4.4	5.4	4.1	5.6	6.4	5.2	6.6	8.1	4.5	6.3	7.7
FUNSTON	1.7	2.6	3.8	2.4	3.2	4.3	2.4	3.3	4.5	3.3	4.5	5.6	3.6	4.4	6.5	3.6	5.2	7.0	4.5	5.7	7.8
GALE	2.0	2.6	3.6	2.2	2.9	4.3	2.5	3.6	4.7	3.6	4.6	6.3	3.6	5.5	6.8	4.8	5.7	8.2	4.9	6.7	9.0
GALLISTEL	2.6	3.3	3.7	2.9	3.9	4.4	3.1	4.1	4.8	4.2	5.0	5.6	4.7	5.7	7.3	5.5	7.5	8.8	6.0	8.0	9.4
GARVEY	2.1	2.9	3.8	2.6	3.1	3.9	3.0	3.7	4.4	3.7	4.5	5.0	3.9	5.0	7.4	4.6	6.1	7.9	5.2	6.6	8.0
GARVY	2.8	3.5	4.4	3.9	4.4	4.9	4.4	4.8	5.2	5.4	6.5	7.7	5.9	7.0	7.8	7.1	8.7	9.8	6.7	8.4	9.9

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
GARY	1.9	2.6	3.1	2.7	3.4	4.2	3.4	4.1	4.7	3.6	4.5	5.6	4.3	5.3	6.3	5.0	6.3	7.8	5.5	6.6	7.9
GERSHWIN	1.4	2.2	3.2	2.6	3.0	3.6	2.6	3.3	4.2	3.2	4.2	5.0	3.7	4.7	5.8	4.1	4.9	6.0	5.3	6.9	8.1
GILLESPIE	2.7	3.2	3.8	3.4	4.0	4.6	3.3	4.2	5.0	3.9	5.1	6.2	4.4	5.2	6.4	3.9	4.8	6.2	3.6	4.6	5.1
GILLESPIE UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5.6	6.5	7.8	5.4	7.1	8.6
GLADSTONE	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.4	4.2	4.8	3.2	4.3	4.8	3.9	4.6	5.3	4.5	5.4	6.8	4.9	6.4	7.6
ALLEN Br.	2.4	3.0	3.4	2.7	3.1	3.4	2.7	3.1	3.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
GOETHALS EVGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.5	4.2	5.1
GOETHE	1.3	1.8	2.5	2.4	3.4	4.3	2.5	3.4	4.2	3.1	3.9	5.2	3.3	4.6	6.0	4.3	5.9	8.0	5.5	6.9	8.5
GOLDBLATT	1.3	1.7	3.2	2.0	2.7	3.4	2.4	3.1	4.0	3.1	3.7	4.5	3.3	4.1	5.1	3.0	4.0	4.7	3.4	3.8	4.7
GOMPERS	1.8	2.7	3.2	2.5	3.2	4.1	2.8	3.6	4.3	2.9	4.1	5.1	3.9	4.9	5.5	4.4	5.5	6.8	4.7	5.7	7.0
GOUDY	x	x	3.3	x	x	3.6	x	x	4.4	x	x	4.8	x	x	6.4	x	x	7.8	x	x	8.0
GRAHAM	1.9	2.8	3.4	2.6	3.7	4.3	3.1	4.0	4.8	4.2	4.9	5.7	4.6	5.5	6.6	4.9	6.5	7.7	5.1	6.1	7.9
GRANT	1.8	2.5	3.0	2.0	2.7	3.4	2.7	3.3	4.1	3.0	3.6	4.6	3.2	4.1	4.8	3.2	4.2	4.9	ISD	ISD	ISD
GRAY	2.6	3.2	4.1	3.5	4.2	4.9	3.6	4.5	5.1	4.7	5.8	7.0	5.4	6.7	7.9	6.2	7.5	8.5	6.4	8.2	9.6
GREELEY	1.5	2.5	3.6	2.3	3.1	4.0	2.7	3.2	2.7	3.0	4.3	5.5	3.8	4.5	5.6	3.8	5.2	7.2	3.7	4.6	6.2
GREEN, Wendell	1.9	2.6	3.4	2.6	3.3	4.0	3.0	3.6	4.3	3.7	4.5	5.4	4.1	4.8	6.3	4.4	5.2	6.2	4.4	5.3	6.9
GREEN, William	3.0	3.4	4.0	3.3	4.3	4.8	4.2	4.7	5.9	4.9	5.7	7.6	6.7	7.3	7.9	-	-	-	-	-	-
GREENE	1.9	2.7	4.3	1.7	3.2	4.1	3.4	4.3	5.5	4.3	5.2	5.9	4.5	5.2	7.1	4.5	6.6	8.5	6.9	8.0	9.0
GREGORY	*	2.2	2.6	*	3.1	4.1	*	3.5	3.9	*	4.0	4.5	*	4.4	5.6	*	5.6	6.6	*	5.7	7.1
GRESHAM	1.6	2.6	3.3	2.3	3.1	3.8	3.2	3.9	4.6	3.3	4.5	5.4	3.8	5.0	6.3	4.1	5.1	6.6	4.8	5.9	7.2

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
GAINES	3.2	3.7	4.4	3.2	4.0	4.6	3.3	4.3	5.6	3.9	4.7	5.8	4.7	6.2	7.0	7.0	8.8	9.4	6.3	7.5	9.0
FLEMING Br.	3.0	3.8	4.3	3.3	4.0	4.8	4.2	4.9	5.4	5.2	6.0	7.1	5.5	6.7	7.6	6.8	8.1	8.9	7.2	9.0	10.0
GRISSOM	3.1	3.7	4.4	3.0	4.0	4.5	3.8	4.6	5.5	4.5	5.8	6.6	5.4	6.4	7.5	6.8	7.8	9.2	7.9	9.1	9.9
GUGGENHEIM	1.7	2.5	2.9	2.3	2.8	3.7	2.6	3.4	4.3	3.0	4.0	5.0	3.5	4.5	5.3	4.0	4.8	6.0	4.6	5.2	6.5
GUESAULUS	3.5	4.4	4.8	3.8	4.4	4.8	4.2	4.8	5.8	4.7	5.2	6.3	5.5	6.6	7.6	6.0	7.2	8.9	6.7	8.0	9.9
HAINES	2.6	3.0	3.4	2.6	3.3	3.9	2.8	3.3	4.3	3.1	4.0	4.7	3.6	5.1	6.1	4.0	5.4	7.6	4.5	6.4	8.0
HALE	3.1	3.7	4.2	3.6	4.4	5.4	3.9	4.6	5.7	5.5	6.3	7.3	5.7	7.0	8.0	6.3	7.8	8.7	7.2	8.6	10.2
HAMILTON	2.1	2.8	3.9	3.1	3.6	4.2	3.6	4.2	4.8	3.9	4.9	5.6	4.2	5.5	6.9	5.8	6.8	7.9	6.5	7.7	9.1
HAMLINE	*	2.1	3.2	*	3.1	3.9	*	3.6	4.4	*	4.1	5.3	*	5.8	6.5	*	6.4	7.3	*	6.7	8.4
HAMMOND	2.0	2.8	3.3	2.7	3.3	4.1	3.1	3.7	4.8	3.4	4.3	5.1	4.1	4.8	6.3	4.0	4.7	5.4	-	-	-
HANCOCK	3.4	3.9	4.3	3.4	4.2	4.7	4.7	5.5	6.2	5.3	6.1	7.1	5.8	6.9	8.0	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-
CREHAN Br.	3.3	3.8	4.2	3.3	4.2	5.4	4.3	5.2	6.2	5.3	6.1	6.7	6.0	6.8	7.9	-	-	-	-	-	-
HANSBERRY SPEC	3.2	3.5	3.9	3.1	3.8	4.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
HARTE	2.9	4.0	4.8	4.3	5.0	5.5	4.7	5.8	6.4	5.0	6.5	7.3	6.4	7.5	8.9	6.1	7.7	10.5	6.8	8.9	10.3
HARTIGAN	*	2.6	3.1	*	3.0	3.5	*	3.2	3.8	*	3.4	4.2	*	4.0	4.9	*	4.6	5.3	*	4.9	6.5
HARVARD	1.6	2.3	2.8	2.4	3.2	4.1	3.0	4.0	4.8	3.1	4.2	5.3	4.1	5.6	6.1	3.7	4.6	5.7	ISD	ISD	ISD
HAUGAN	2.4	3.1	3.9	2.9	3.8	4.6	3.2	4.4	5.2	3.9	5.4	6.4	4.3	6.1	7.4	5.5	6.9	8.3	6.0	7.6	9.2
HAWTHORNE	1.8	2.6	3.1	3.2	3.6	4.3	3.0	4.3	5.0	3.5	4.5	5.4	3.9	5.4	6.8	4.6	5.5	7.9	4.6	6.3	7.8
HAY	1.5	2.0	2.9	2.4	2.9	4.2	2.6	3.2	4.0	2.8	3.8	4.7	3.2	4.3	5.8	3.9	5.2	7.5	4.3	6.1	8.0
HAY Br.	2.1	2.8	3.2	2.2	3.0	3.7	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
HAYT	2.8	3.4	4.1	3.2	4.2	4.9	3.8	4.7	5.7	5.1	6.1	7.1	6.2	7.3	8.1	6.6	7.9	9.1	6.8	8.5	9.4
HEALY	1.5	2.3	3.0	2.4	3.0	3.9	2.7	3.5	3.9	3.4	4.7	5.6	4.2	5.3	6.2	5.5	6.6	8.0	6.0	7.4	8.6
HEARST	1.6	2.4	3.4	2.5	3.0	3.8	2.5	3.4	4.2	3.4	4.0	4.9	3.5	4.4	5.6	3.8	4.9	6.4	4.2	5.1	6.8
HEIGFS	2.3	2.7	3.2	2.5	3.8	4.7	3.2	4.0	4.8	4.2	4.9	5.8	5.1	6.1	7.2	5.6	6.3	7.3	6.5	7.8	9.0
HEFFERAN	1.3	1.7	2.4	1.8	2.6	3.5	2.5	3.2	4.1	3.1	3.8	4.7	3.0	4.1	4.9	3.3	3.9	4.3	-	-	-
HENDERSON	x	x	2.8	x	x	3.7	x	x	3.9	x	x	4.7	x	x	5.0	x	x	6.1	x	x	6.7
HENDRICKS	1.6	2.0	2.8	2.5	2.9	3.7	2.5	3.0	3.7	2.8	3.5	4.4	3.1	4.1	5.0	3.9	4.5	5.9	4.5	6.0	7.1
HENRY	2.6	3.1	4.2	2.9	3.8	4.6	3.3	4.4	5.1	4.4	5.5	6.5	5.1	5.8	7.0	5.8	7.2	8.5	6.7	8.4	9.5
HENSON	1.9	2.5	2.8	2.3	2.9	3.7	2.5	3.2	3.9	2.2	3.0	3.8	2.8	4.0	4.9	4.0	5.2	7.3	3.9	4.3	5.0
HERBERT	1.6	1.9	2.4	2.1	2.7	3.1	2.4	2.9	3.9	2.7	3.6	4.5	3.5	4.4	5.3	3.9	4.4	5.6	4.2	5.1	6.3
HERZL	x	x	2.8	x	x	3.7	x	x	4.1	x	x	5.0	x	x	6.2	x	x	5.8	-	-	-
HESS UCC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD	4.2	5.3	6.4	4.0	4.9	6.5
HIBBARD	2.2	3.0	3.8	2.7	3.4	4.4	3.3	4.2	4.9	3.9	4.8	5.7	3.8	4.9	6.3	3.5	4.2	4.9	-	-	-
HIGGINS	1.8	2.3	3.3	2.3	2.9	4.0	2.5	3.3	4.1	3.4	4.0	5.1	3.6	4.8	6.0	4.6	6.1	7.5	4.4	6.0	7.2
HINTON	1.4	2.1	2.8	1.9	2.7	3.5	2.7	3.5	4.2	2.9	3.7	4.6	3.5	4.6	5.3	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD
HITCH	3.1	3.5	4.2	3.7	4.3	4.9	4.7	5.2	5.9	5.2	6.1	6.8	6.8	7.6	8.4	7.2	7.9	9.3	8.1	9.2	10.1
HOLDEN	2.0	3.0	3.3	2.7	3.5	4.4	3.3	4.0	4.7	4.2	4.8	5.6	4.4	5.0	6.0	5.3	6.6	7.6	6.0	6.9	8.5
HOLMES	*	1.9	2.7	*	2.8	3.5	*	3.3	4.2	*	3.9	5.2	*	3.2	4.4	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-
HOOKWAY	1.8	2.8	3.4	3.2	3.9	4.5	3.1	3.6	4.2	3.4	4.4	5.7	4.7	5.4	6.4	4.6	6.2	7.7	5.0	7.0	8.8
HOPE MIDDLE	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	5.8	x	x	5.9	x	x	6.9

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
HORNER	1.7	2.3	2.8	1.8	2.9	3.5	2.5	3.2	3.8	3.4	4.2	4.6	3.5	4.3	5.0	3.9	4.3	4.8	4.3	5.2	5.8
HOWE	*	2.4	3.0	*	2.8	3.3	*	3.4	4.0	*	3.8	4.5	*	4.3	5.4	*	4.9	6.2	*	5.5	6.9
HOWLAND	1.9	2.4	2.9	2.2	3.1	3.7	2.7	3.3	4.4	2.8	3.6	4.2	3.5	4.2	4.9	4.0	4.4	5.0	3.8	4.3	4.5
HOYNE	2.6	3.2	4.0	3.0	4.2	4.9	3.4	4.1	4.5	4.5	5.4	6.0	4.5	5.2	6.8	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-
EARHART Br.	2.7	3.7	4.2	3.3	3.8	4.4	3.8	5.4	6.1	4.0	4.9	5.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
HUGHES, C.	2.8	3.3	4.0	2.6	3.6	4.3	2.7	3.3	3.9	3.0	4.3	5.1	3.0	4.0	5.1	2.8	3.8	4.5	-	-	-
HUGHES, L.	1.9	2.6	3.2	2.8	3.6	4.4	3.4	4.0	4.9	4.0	4.5	5.2	3.6	3.8	4.4	-	-	-	-	-	-
HURLEY	2.8	3.2	4.0	4.5	4.9	5.3	4.3	5.1	6.2	5.3	6.1	7.1	6.4	6.8	8.2	7.4	8.5	9.5	7.8	9.3	10.2
IRVING	1.7	2.6	3.3	2.3	3.0	3.6	3.2	3.9	4.4	3.6	4.3	4.6	3.4	4.6	5.4	4.2	5.3	6.8	4.3	5.5	7.4
IRVING PARK	2.9	3.5	4.4	2.9	3.9	4.9	3.7	4.3	5.9	5.2	6.1	6.9	5.8	6.7	8.1	6.2	7.5	9.3	7.4	9.0	10.1
JACKSON, A.	2.3	2.9	3.7	2.6	3.3	4.3	3.8	4.0	4.8	4.0	4.4	5.3	4.4	4.8	6.3	ISD	ISD	ISD	5.6	7.1	9.2
JACKSON, H.	1.3	2.4	3.2	2.3	3.3	4.1	2.9	3.6	4.3	3.0	4.0	4.8	3.7	4.7	5.8	4.0	5.1	6.7	4.9	6.5	7.8
JAHN	*	2.8	3.2	*	3.4	4.4	*	3.7	4.7	*	4.6	5.7	*	5.0	6.2	*	6.2	7.8	*	6.7	8.2
JAMIESON	2.9	4.0	4.9	3.9	4.9	5.5	4.3	5.1	6.1	5.1	6.2	7.2	5.9	6.8	8.3	7.5	8.6	9.5	8.5	9.8	10.6
JEFFERSON	*	2.5	3.0	*	2.8	3.3	*	3.6	4.3	*	4.1	4.7	*	4.1	5.3	*	4.5	6.9	*	5.2	6.7
JENNER	2.3	3.0	3.4	2.5	3.0	3.7	2.8	3.3	4.1	3.2	3.9	4.4	3.4	4.2	5.0	3.9	4.7	6.0	3.4	4.0	4.6
JENSEN	1.3	1.6	2.6	1.7	2.5	3.3	2.4	3.0	3.9	3.0	3.7	4.4	3.5	4.3	5.1	3.7	4.8	6.0	4.4	6.0	7.2
JIRKA	1.8	2.4	3.0	2.2	2.8	3.3	2.3	3.2	4.3	2.4	3.3	5.0	3.3	4.7	5.6	3.3	4.2	5.3	ISD	ISD	ISD
JOHNSON	*	2.7	2.9	*	2.9	3.7	*	3.2	4.1	*	3.5	4.4	*	3.9	4.8	*	4.1	4.9	-	-	-
JOPLIN	1.8	2.4	3.0	2.6	3.2	3.7	3.0	3.6	4.2	3.5	4.2	4.8	3.7	4.5	5.5	4.7	5.7	7.1	4.7	6.0	7.4

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
JUDD	2.0	2.3	3.0	1.8	2.7	3.3	3.0	3.7	4.4	3.6	4.3	5.2	3.8	4.6	5.2	4.2	5.0	5.9	4.3	5.3	6.8
JUNGMAN	2.5	2.8	3.2	2.4	3.2	4.0	2.7	3.8	4.4	3.0	4.0	5.2	4.7	5.5	6.6	3.2	4.3	5.7	-	-	-
KELLOGG	3.4	4.2	5.0	3.9	4.5	5.3	4.2	4.8	5.4	5.4	6.1	7.0	5.9	7.2	8.5	6.4	7.8	9.4	7.4	9.2	10.3
KERSHAW	*	2.4	3.1	*	2.7	3.4	*	3.5	4.2	*	3.5	4.6	*	4.5	5.0	*	4.1	5.2	-	-	-
KEY	1.6	2.1	2.7	2.1	2.7	3.8	2.6	3.1	4.0	2.9	3.5	4.4	2.5	3.6	4.3	-	-	-	-	-	-
CLARK BR.	ISD	ISD	ISD	3.1	3.9	4.5	ISD	ISD	ISD	4.7	5.3	7.1	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	7.5	8.4	10.0
KITMER	3.1	3.5	4.2	3.8	4.5	5.1	4.0	4.7	5.7	4.4	6.1	7.1	5.4	7.0	8.1	6.2	7.8	8.9	7.0	8.2	9.9
KING	1.5	1.9	2.4	2.3	2.8	3.3	2.0	3.0	3.8	2.8	3.5	4.5	3.2	4.3	5.3	3.6	4.2	5.2	3.7	4.4	5.3
KING UCC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	*	4.0	4.5	*	4.3	5.0
KINZIE	2.8	3.5	4.4	3.5	4.2	5.0	4.4	5.0	6.2	5.4	6.3	7.2	6.2	7.1	8.0	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-
KINZIE UCC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.2	8.4	9.4	7.3	8.8	9.7
KIPLING	1.8	2.7	3.5	2.8	3.7	4.7	3.2	4.3	4.9	4.0	5.1	5.8	5.0	6.0	7.3	4.9	6.0	8.3	5.3	6.5	8.1
KOHN	1.8	2.5	3.1	2.4	3.1	3.8	2.8	3.7	4.6	3.3	4.0	4.8	4.0	4.6	5.5	3.8	5.1	6.2	4.1	5.1	6.5
KOSCIUSKO	1.7	2.6	3.2	2.5	2.9	3.6	2.5	3.1	4.1	2.9	3.7	4.5	4.0	4.6	5.1	3.2	3.8	4.7	-	-	-
KOSCIUSZKO	2.0	2.9	3.7	2.8	3.2	3.8	2.8	3.5	4.3	2.7	3.7	4.6	2.9	4.2	5.8	3.8	4.9	6.0	4.1	5.1	6.5
KOZMINSKI	1.7	2.9	3.8	2.1	2.9	4.1	2.8	3.8	4.5	3.1	3.8	4.6	4.3	5.0	6.1	4.4	5.3	6.6	4.5	6.1	7.3
LAFAYETTE	*	*	2.1	*	*	2.7	*	*	3.5	*	*	4.3	*	*	5.1	*	*	4.8	*	*	4.0
LASALLE	2.0	2.7	4.2	2.8	3.2	4.3	3.9	4.5	5.5	3.6	5.1	6.1	4.3	5.8	6.8	5.3	6.1	8.0	6.0	7.7	8.8
LATHROP	2.2	2.6	3.1	2.3	2.8	3.3	2.5	3.3	3.9	2.8	3.7	4.3	3.6	4.5	5.1	3.0	4.1	5.0	3.2	4.1	4.6
LAWLESS UCC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD	4.5	5.6	6.8	4.0	5.2	7.0

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
LAWRENCE UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	6.7	x	x	6.7
LAWSON	1.5	2.2	3.0	2.3	3.1	3.5	2.1	2.8	3.7	2.8	3.8	4.4	3.6	4.5	5.7	3.0	3.9	5.0	ISD	ISD	ISD
LEE	2.9	3.2	3.7	3.5	4.5	5.0	4.4	4.9	5.6	5.7	6.3	7.3	5.9	7.2	7.7	6.7	8.0	8.7	6.8	8.1	9.8
LE MOYNE	2.0	2.6	3.0	1.9	2.6	3.6	2.6	3.3	4.1	3.0	3.8	4.5	3.7	4.5	5.6	3.9	5.2	7.1	4.5	5.6	7.7
LEWIS	2.0	2.9	3.7	3.3	4.0	4.7	3.3	4.3	5.2	3.9	4.7	6.1	4.4	5.7	7.0	5.0	6.6	8.2	6.1	7.6	9.1
LEWIS-CHAMPLIN	1.4	2.5	3.1	2.0	2.6	3.1	2.4	3.0	4.4	2.9	3.7	4.3	2.8	4.0	5.3	3.9	4.7	6.3	4.0	5.0	6.2
LIBBY	1.3	1.7	2.6	1.8	2.4	3.3	2.4	3.1	3.7	2.8	3.5	4.4	2.9	4.0	5.1	3.2	4.8	6.0	3.7	5.2	7.2
LINCOLN	3.0	4.0	4.7	4.1	4.9	5.4	4.6	5.2	6.0	5.6	6.4	7.5	6.6	7.7	8.5	7.1	8.9	9.9	8.3	9.6	10.6
LINNE	1.9	2.5	3.0	2.8	3.3	4.7	3.1	3.8	5.1	3.3	4.7	5.7	4.4	5.3	7.1	4.7	6.4	8.3	4.7	6.3	8.0
LLOYD	2.4	3.0	4.0	2.9	3.7	4.4	3.6	4.4	5.2	4.2	5.1	6.3	5.0	6.0	6.9	5.2	6.9	8.3	6.3	7.8	9.2
LOCKE	2.5	3.1	3.8	3.7	4.3	5.0	3.7	4.5	5.4	4.3	5.7	6.4	4.8	6.6	7.7	6.1	7.6	8.8	6.5	8.5	9.6
LONGFELLOW	2.9	3.3	3.7	2.3	3.1	3.8	3.2	4.0	5.1	3.6	4.4	5.2	4.1	4.9	6.8	4.1	5.3	7.0	4.9	5.9	7.8
LOVETT	2.5	3.1	4.3	3.4	4.0	4.9	3.9	4.4	5.3	4.1	5.3	6.4	4.9	6.2	7.2	6.1	7.5	9.2	6.2	8.1	9.6
LOW UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD	4.1	5.0	6.2	4.0	5.4	7.2
LOWELL	1.5	2.1	2.8	1.8	2.6	3.3	2.2	3.1	4.1	2.5	3.2	4.4	3.0	4.3	6.0	3.8	5.0	6.2	4.2	5.3	6.8
LUELLA	1.7	2.1	3.1	2.5	3.3	4.2	2.9	3.9	4.7	3.8	4.4	5.0	4.4	5.4	6.4	4.8	5.8	7.0	4.9	6.3	7.7
LYON	3.2	3.8	4.5	3.8	4.3	5.0	3.8	4.9	5.3	4.9	5.9	6.7	5.8	6.6	7.5	6.1	7.6	8.9	7.3	8.3	9.7
MADISON	1.5	2.3	2.9	2.9	3.3	3.9	2.7	3.5	4.4	3.1	4.0	4.9	3.4	4.6	5.6	4.2	4.9	5.9	4.7	5.5	6.1
MAGELLAN EVGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ICD	ICD	ICD
MANIERRE	2.7	3.0	3.3	2.8	3.3	4.0	2.9	3.5	4.3	3.6	4.2	5.0	4.1	5.2	6.6	5.1	6.1	7.8	5.1	6.3	7.5

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
MAHLEY UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	6.9
MANN	1.8	2.9	3.8	2.2	3.0	3.8	2.9	3.8	4.6	3.5	4.4	5.3	4.0	4.7	5.6	4.3	5.4	6.9	4.4	5.8	7.4
MARCONI	x	x	2.8	x	x	3.1	x	x	3.1	x	x	4.5	x	x	5.0	x	x	5.0	ISD	ISD	ISD
MARQUETTE	2.5	3.1	4.0	3.1	4.1	4.8	3.8	4.5	5.6	4.3	5.4	6.6	4.9	5.8	7.0	6.3	7.7	8.8	6.5	8.6	9.9
MARSH	3.1	3.9	4.4	3.1	3.6	4.6	3.6	4.4	5.2	4.3	5.2	5.8	5.0	6.2	7.0	5.3	6.1	7.5	5.5	7.2	9.2
MARSHALL UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	*	6.4	7.2	*	6.4	7.7
MASON CPEC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
MASON PRIMARY	1.8	2.4	3.0	2.1	2.8	3.7	2.3	2.7	3.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
MASON INTER.	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.5	3.2	4.2	3.1	3.9	4.6	3.9	4.5	5.3	3.4	4.2	5.0	ISD	ISD	ISD
MASON UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	6.8	x	x	7.0
MAY	*	2.3	3.0	*	3.1	3.6	*	3.1	3.8	*	3.7	4.5	*	4.2	5.8	*	3.9	6.2	*	5.3	6.5
MAYER	1.7	2.2	2.9	3.1	4.2	5.0	3.5	4.4	5.3	3.5	4.7	5.9	4.2	5.9	7.5	5.0	6.3	8.3	4.7	6.3	7.8
MAYO	2.6	3.3	3.7	1.9	3.1	3.8	3.0	3.4	4.2	3.6	4.2	5.1	3.8	4.7	5.7	3.1	4.3	5.0	ISD	ISD	ISD
McCLELLAN	1.7	2.5	3.6	2.6	3.2	4.2	3.3	4.0	4.8	4.3	4.9	5.7	4.9	5.5	6.7	3.8	4.8	5.4	-	-	-
McCORKLE	2.9	3.1	3.3	2.5	2.9	3.5	2.5	3.2	4.1	3.0	3.4	4.1	3.6	4.2	4.8	4.2	5.0	5.6	4.7	5.6	6.8
McCORMICK	1.7	2.5	3.2	1.8	2.7	3.4	2.7	3.3	4.2	3.0	3.9	4.8	3.3	4.6	5.5	4.1	5.2	6.7	5.0	6.7	8.4
McCOSH	1.9	2.6	3.1	2.8	3.7	4.7	3.2	3.9	4.5	3.6	4.3	5.3	3.3	4.4	5.3	4.3	5.0	6.3	4.5	5.5	7.0
McCUTCHEON	-	-	-	2.5	3.3	4.1	2.8	4.0	4.9	3.4	4.2	5.1	3.4	4.5	5.7	4.3	5.6	7.5	4.4	6.5	9.8
McCUTCHEON Br.	1.2	2.2	2.9	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
McDADE	1.9	3.0	3.8	3.0	3.5	4.4	3.5	4.1	4.6	3.6	4.3	5.3	4.5	5.4	6.3	-	-	-	-	-	-

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
McKAY	2.8	3.5	3.9	3.6	4.2	4.6	3.6	4.2	5.3	3.8	4.6	5.8	5.3	6.3	8.1	6.7	7.8	8.6	7.3	9.1	10.1
McKINLEY UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.5	5.7	7.2	4.2	5.2	6.6
McLAREN	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	4.1	5.5	6.5	5.4	7.1	7.9	6.0	6.6	7.1
McPHERSON	2.2	3.0	3.7	3.1	3.9	4.8	3.4	4.6	5.4	3.8	4.8	5.8	4.8	6.0	7.5	6.0	7.6	8.7	6.6	7.8	9.2
MEDILL NORTH PRI.	1.6	2.6	3.2	2.6	3.2	3.8	2.3	3.1	3.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
MEDILL SOUTH I/U	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.2	3.9	4.8	3.4	4.4	5.0	3.2	4.0	5.0	4.0	5.1	6.4	4.2	4.8	5.9
MELODY	1.6	2.1	2.7	1.9	2.6	3.2	2.4	2.9	3.4	2.8	3.5	4.2	3.3	4.3	5.4	3.6	4.3	5.3	-	-	-
MILLER OPEC	x	x	2.3	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
MITCHELL	*	1.5	2.0	*	3.0	3.6	*	2.7	3.5	*	4.1	4.9	*	5.0	5.6	*	5.5	7.0	*	5.7	6.9
MOLLISON	2.1	2.9	3.5	2.5	3.3	3.7	2.7	3.1	4.0	3.0	3.9	4.4	3.1	4.2	5.3	4.3	4.9	5.6	4.3	4.9	6.0
MONROE	2.1	2.6	3.2	2.7	3.7	4.3	3.2	4.1	5.2	4.1	5.1	6.4	4.5	6.0	7.1	5.0	6.9	8.0	5.7	7.6	9.2
MOOS	1.4	1.6	2.5	1.9	2.7	3.4	1.9	3.1	3.9	2.4	3.5	4.6	3.1	4.3	5.4	2.4	3.3	4.3	3.4	3.6	4.3
MORGAN	1.9	3.0	3.4	2.6	3.7	4.5	2.9	3.8	4.6	3.3	4.1	5.3	3.7	4.7	6.0	4.6	6.1	7.7	4.5	5.9	7.5
MORRILL	2.9	3.8	4.6	3.4	4.4	4.8	3.8	4.7	5.4	4.7	5.6	6.3	5.4	6.6	8.0	6.3	7.3	8.1	6.7	8.0	9.5
MORRIS	1.3	2.1	3.1	1.9	2.5	3.5	2.9	3.6	4.5	3.4	4.1	5.0	3.5	4.4	5.4	4.1	5.0	6.5	4.8	6.3	7.7
MORSE	1.7	2.0	2.7	2.1	2.7	3.2	2.6	3.0	3.7	2.7	3.3	4.3	2.6	2.9	4.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
MORTON UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD	x	x	5.1	x	x	6.4	x	x	7.0
MOSELEY SASB	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD
MOTLEY SASG	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD
MT. GREENWOOD	2.9	3.5	4.3	3.8	4.5	5.2	4.4	4.9	5.3	4.5	5.2	6.1	5.8	7.2	8.3	7.4	8.3	9.6	7.7	9.0	10.1

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
MT. VERNON	2.6	3.2	3.7	3.1	4.0	4.6	3.6	4.2	4.9	3.9	4.7	5.6	4.2	5.2	6.5	4.7	5.9	7.4	5.3	6.5	7.1
MOZART	2.6	3.0	3.3	2.7	3.2	4.3	3.0	3.9	5.2	3.6	4.9	6.1	3.9	5.0	6.5	5.0	6.2	7.8	4.7	6.2	8.1
MULLIGAN	x	x	2.9	x	x	3.1	x	x	4.0	x	x	4.6	x	x	4.7	x	x	5.5	x	x	5.1
MURPHY	2.8	3.6	4.4	3.6	4.2	4.9	3.8	4.5	5.1	4.6	6.0	7.1	5.6	6.9	8.0	6.9	7.6	8.6	6.6	8.0	9.1
MURRAY	2.3	3.2	4.1	3.6	4.2	5.2	3.3	4.2	5.1	4.3	5.1	5.9	4.3	5.8	7.3	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-
NANSEN	1.5	2.4	3.3	2.4	3.1	3.9	2.7	3.4	4.2	3.2	4.3	5.1	4.0	4.6	5.4	4.1	5.2	6.8	4.8	5.8	7..
NASH	1.3	1.8	2.6	2.4	3.0	3.6	2.6	3.3	4.0	2.7	3.5	4.4	3.0	4.1	5.1	3.5	4.5	5.7	3.8	4.7	6.1
NEIL	2.1	2.7	3.2	2.4	2.9	4.1	2.8	4.0	5.3	5.2	6.0	6.8	5.2	6.0	7.1	-	-	-	-	-	-
NEIL SPECIAL	*	1.7	3.0	*	2.6	4.1	*	3.5	4.7	*	3.4	4.5	*	5.2	6.1	*	5.6	6.8	*	5.9	7..
NETTELHORST	2.4	3.2	4.5	2.9	3.9	4.3	3.1	4.3	5.4	5.0	5.7	6.7	4.1	6.6	8.0	6.1	7.5	9.2	6.6	8.2	9.
NEWBERRY	*	1.7	2.5	*	2.7	3.1	*	2.9	4.1	*	4.1	5.4	*	4.0	4.9	*	5.5	6.2	*	4.2	5..
NEWTON	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.9	3.5	3.9	3.0	3.8	4.7	3.6	4.2	5.1	3.0	3.8	4.4	ISD	ISD	ISD
NIGHTINGALE	2.6	3.3	3.7	3.3	4.2	4.9	3.7	4.4	5.3	4.4	5.4	6.2	4.9	6.2	7.8	5.5	6.7	7.7	7.1	8.3	9.
NIXON	1.9	2.8	3.3	2.8	3.4	4.4	3.3	4.4	5.1	3.9	4.8	5.9	4.2	5.3	6.8	5.2	6.6	7.9	5.7	7.2	9..
NOBEL	*	2.9	3.2	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	*	6.0	7.4	*	6.4	8.
NORWOOD PARK	2.9	3.2	3.8	3.5	4.3	5.0	4.4	4.7	5.9	5.0	6.5	7.0	5.9	6.8	7.6	6.5	8.0	8.9	7.1	8.9	9.
OAKENWALD NORTH PL	2.2	2.7	3.1	2.3	2.8	3.5	2.8	3.7	4.2	2.7	3.2	3.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ROBINSON Br.	1.9	2.5	2.9	2.7	3.1	3.7	2.5	3.0	3.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
OAKENWALD SOUTH INTER./UPPER	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.3	3.9	4.7	3.3	4.0	4.9	3.9	4.5	5.4	4.0	4.9	6..
OAKLAND	*	2.7	3.1	*	3.0	3.6	*	3.3	4.3	*	3.7	4.8	*	4.7	5.4	*	5.2	6.3	*	5.6	7.

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
OGDEN	3.0	4.1	4.7	3.4	4.4	5.1	4.4	5.1	6.1	4.8	5.9	7.1	5.2	6.5	8.0	6.0	8.2	10.0	6.6	8.0	9.4
OGLESBY	1.6	2.2	2.8	2.5	2.9	3.6	2.8	3.4	4.1	3.4	4.2	4.8	3.8	4.9	5.7	2.6	3.6	4.5	ISD	ISD	ISD
O'KEEFFE	1.5	2.4	3.4	2.5	3.3	4.1	2.9	3.8	4.5	3.3	4.1	4.8	3.6	4.8	5.5	4.3	5.0	6.6	4.5	6.0	7.4
OLIVE CPEC	2.9	3.4	4.0	2.9	3.8	4.5	3.7	4.4	5.0	4.5	5.6	6.1	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-
ONAHAN	3.1	3.9	4.4	3.5	4.4	5.0	4.2	4.6	5.7	5.3	6.2	7.3	5.8	7.1	8.3	6.8	8.4	10.1	7.9	9.5	10.3
ORIOLE PARK	2.9	3.5	3.9	3.6	4.4	4.9	3.9	5.3	6.1	5.3	6.6	7.2	6.2	7.4	8.3	7.4	8.6	9.8	7.9	9.3	10.3
OTIS	1.7	2.2	2.6	1.9	2.6	3.6	2.5	3.3	4.0	2.9	4.3	5.0	3.5	4.5	5.3	4.2	4.9	6.2	4.2	5.1	7.1
O'TOOLE	*	1.8	2.6	*	2.6	3.2	*	3.0	3.8	*	3.6	4.4	*	3.9	5.1	*	4.7	6.2	*	5.5	6.8
OVERTON	2.2	2.9	3.4	2.4	3.1	3.7	2.9	3.6	4.2	3.1	4.0	4.9	3.1	4.3	4.9	2.6	3.7	4.4	4.1	5.4	6.3
OWEN	2.6	3.6	4.5	2.9	4.0	4.7	4.9	5.5	6.0	5.4	6.1	6.8	6.4	7.3	8.3	6.9	7.9	9.3	7.5	8.7	9.3
PARK VIEW Dr.	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
PAUEREWSKI	*	*	3.1	*	*	3.8	*	*	4.3	*	*	5.1	*	*	5.9	*	*	6.4	*	*	5.2
PAINER	2.*	3.5	4.1	3.7	4.4	5.1	4.0	4.8	6.0	4.9	6.0	6.8	6.7	7.3	8.3	6.3	7.5	8.5	7.4	8.8	9.8
PARKER	1.8	2.5	3.0	2.4	3.0	3.5	2.6	3.5	4.3	3.2	3.8	4.5	3.7	4.5	5.5	4.3	5.0	6.0	4.3	5.3	7.0
PARKMAN	2.0	2.6	3.1	2.4	2.8	3.5	2.6	3.2	4.4	3.1	3.9	4.4	3.0	3.9	5.4	3.7	4.5	5.9	4.6	5.5	6.4
PARK MANOR	1.7	2.4	3.2	2.3	3.4	4.3	3.0	3.9	4.6	3.2	4.2	5.3	3.8	4.8	5.7	4.3	5.6	7.3	5.1	6.6	7.9
PARKSIDE	2.4	2.9	3.6	2.8	3.4	4.0	3.3	4.2	5.3	3.8	4.3	5.0	3.7	4.4	5.4	4.3	5.1	6.7	4.3	5.9	6.9
PASTEUR	2.6	3.4	4.0	3.3	4.2	4.8	3.6	4.8	5.2	4.4	5.7	6.8	5.8	6.9	8.0	6.3	8.3	9.2	6.9	8.0	9.2
PEABODY	2.0	2.6	3.1	2.6	3.1	3.9	2.6	3.4	4.1	3.2	4.4	5.4	3.4	4.4	6.1	4.4	5.2	6.8	5.0	6.3	7.2
PECK	3.0	3.4	3.7	4.1	4.7	5.1	4.6	5.2	6.0	5.2	5.9	6.6	5.2	6.2	7.5	6.7	8.5	9.5	7.6	8.8	9.8

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
NELSON Br.	3.4	4.0	4.5	4.3	4.8	5.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
PEIRCE	2.9	3.4	4.2	2.8	3.8	4.7	3.2	4.3	5.3	4.4	5.2	6.2	5.0	6.7	7.7	5.5	6.8	9.2	6.6	8.4	10.2
PERK	*	2.0	2.8	*	2.6	3.4	*	3.0	3.7	*	3.4	4.2	*	3.8	4.8	*	5.2	6.7	*	5.3	6.8
PERRY	*	2.4	2.9	*	3.0	3.8	*	3.8	4.5	*	4.4	5.3	*	5.2	6.2	*	5.4	6.9	*	7.3	8.1
PERSHING	3.1	3.4	4.2	4.1	4.4	4.6	3.8	4.8	5.2	5.1	6.0	7.2	6.1	7.0	8.1	7.4	8.6	9.9	7.9	8.8	10.0
PETERSON	3.1	3.5	4.1	3.6	4.3	5.1	4.3	4.9	5.9	5.3	6.3	7.3	6.2	7.3	8.5	6.9	8.7	9.9	7.9	9.0	10.1
PICCOLO ELEM.	*	2.1	2.8	*	3.3	4.3	*	2.9	4.1	*	3.6	4.8	*	3.5	4.1	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-
PICCOLO MIDDLE	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.3	5.4	6.6	4.4	5.9	7.5	4.6	6.3	7.9
PICKARD	1.9	2.4	3.0	2.5	2.9	3.5	2.6	3.4	4.4	3.1	3.7	4.7	3.5	4.5	5.5	4.8	5.6	7.0	4.6	5.8	7.5
PIRIE	2.9	3.4	3.8	3.2	3.8	4.4	3.6	4.3	4.9	4.3	5.1	6.3	4.3	5.1	6.8	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD
PLAMONDON	1.7	2.7	3.5	2.5	3.0	3.7	2.5	3.8	4.5	3.4	4.1	5.7	3.7	4.3	5.5	3.8	4.7	5.6	4.2	5.3	7.0
POPE	1.5	2.0	3.2	2.0	2.7	3.5	2.5	3.1	3.9	2.9	3.7	4.8	3.4	4.2	4.9	3.8	4.6	5.6	ISD	ISD	ISD
PORTAGE PARK	2.6	3.6	4.6	3.5	4.1	4.8	4.3	5.1	5.8	4.9	6.1	7.1	5.8	7.0	8.3	6.9	8.2	9.5	7.4	8.6	9.5
PRESCOTT	1.9	2.4	3.0	2.7	3.5	4.3	3.0	4.0	4.7	4.5	5.0	6.2	4.1	5.1	6.4	5.3	6.4	8.2	5.3	6.2	8.4
PRICE	2.3	2.9	3.3	2.1	2.7	3.5	2.9	3.7	4.3	3.5	4.0	4.9	3.6	4.5	5.4	4.3	5.0	6.8	4.1	5.4	6.8
PRUSSING	3.1	3.8	4.5	3.4	4.3	5.0	4.1	4.8	5.8	5.2	6.2	7.0	6.0	7.0	8.0	7.4	8.6	9.5	6.7	8.1	9.6
PULASKI	*	1.9	2.6	*	2.7	3.4	*	3.3	4.4	*	3.8	5.1	*	4.2	5.4	*	5.3	7.0	*	5.4	7.5
MOREL CAMPOS Br.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD
FULLMAN	2.0	2.8	3.3	2.4	2.9	3.7	2.6	3.3	4.4	2.8	4.1	5.0	3.7	4.6	6.0	4.6	5.8	7.3	5.2	6.4	7.7
RASTER	*	1.8	2.7	*	2.6	3.2	*	3.1	4.0	*	3.6	4.5	*	3.1	3.9	ISD	ISD	ISD	*	5.9	7.0

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
PAVENSWOOD	2.1	3.0	3.6	2.4	3.2	3.8	2.8	3.9	5.0	4.2	5.0	6.5	4.7	5.8	7.4	5.5	7.0	8.3	5.1	7.1	9.1
RAY	3.7	4.2	5.3	4.1	4.9	5.5	5.3	6.0	6.8	5.9	7.2	8.1	6.7	7.7	9.3	7.1	8.5	7.9	7.9	9.9	11.0
RAYMOND	2.4	2.9	3.5	2.5	3.1	3.6	2.9	3.8	4.7	3.2	3.8	4.4	3.9	4.6	5.4	3.3	4.1	4.7	-	-	-
REAVIS	2.3	3.0	3.5	2.9	3.5	3.9	3.2	3.7	4.5	3.7	4.3	5.1	3.3	3.7	4.4	-	-	-	-	-	-
REED	2.1	2.8	3.1	2.4	2.8	3.3	2.7	3.3	4.1	2.9	3.8	4.7	3.2	4.4	7.0	4.4	5.8	6.9	4.3	5.4	6.9
REILLY	2.0	2.9	3.5	2.9	4.1	4.7	3.7	4.5	5.4	3.7	4.8	5.8	4.8	6.3	7.5	5.4	6.9	8.7	6.3	7.7	9.0
REINBERG	3.2	3.6	4.5	3.3	4.2	4.8	4.3	4.8	5.6	5.0	6.1	6.9	6.4	7.2	8.1	6.6	7.9	8.8	7.1	8.4	10.6
REVERE	1.7	2.1	2.6	2.0	3.1	3.6	2.5	3.1	4.4	2.8	3.6	4.4	3.4	4.4	5.1	3.9	4.6	6.2	3.9	4.9	6.5
RIIS	1.7	2.1	2.8	2.4	3.0	3.6	2.5	3.6	4.4	3.3	4.1	4.6	3.4	4.2	6.2	4.3	5.0	6.2	4.3	5.4	6.8
ROBICHEAUX	2.4	3.0	3.7	2.9	3.6	4.1	3.5	4.2	4.7	3.6	4.4	5.1	4.0	4.9	5.9	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-
ROENTGEN EVGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.8	4.5	5.2
ROGERS	3.0	4.0	4.6	3.6	4.5	5.3	4.5	5.0	6.1	4.7	6.0	6.8	6.2	7.5	8.7	7.1	8.5	9.6	7.7	9.7	10.5
ROSS	1.5	1.9	2.8	1.7	2.7	3.4	2.5	3.2	3.8	2.6	3.5	4.3	3.1	4.0	4.8	3.9	5.2	6.6	4.3	5.6	7.3
RUGGLES	x	x	3.0	x	x	4.0	x	x	4.4	x	x	5.7	x	x	6.8	x	x	7.8	x	x	9.1
RYDER	1.8	2.5	3.6	2.2	3.4	4.5	2.8	4.0	4.6	3.8	4.5	5.2	3.9	4.7	5.8	4.3	5.1	6.7	4.6	5.9	6.9
RYERSON	1.2	1.6	2.4	2.3	2.9	3.4	2.6	3.2	3.9	2.6	3.2	4.0	2.9	3.8	4.8	2.8	4.4	5.6	3.5	4.4	5.4
SABIN	1.0	1.2	1.5	1.4	1.8	2.3	2.2	3.0	3.5	3.0	3.7	4.6	3.1	4.3	4.8	2.9	3.5	4.4	ISD	ISD	ISD
SAUGANASH	2.8	3.2	4.4	4.2	4.8	5.0	4.2	5.4	5.8	5.6	6.3	7.7	6.2	7.3	8.7	7.2	8.6	9.7	8.4	9.5	10.7
THOREAU Br.	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
SAWYER	3.0	3.3	3.9	3.4	4.2	4.8	3.7	4.5	5.1	4.3	5.2	6.0	5.5	6.2	7.0	5.9	7.0	8.8	6.0	8.3	9.4

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
SAYRE	2.7	3.4	3.8	4.0	4.6	5.1	3.6	4.3	5.2	4.0	4.8	6.1	4.8	6.9	8.0	5.9	7.4	8.4	6.0	8.1	9.4
SBARBARO	1.7	2.6	3.3	2.5	3.1	3.9	3.1	3.8	4.3	3.4	4.5	5.5	4.2	5.3	6.4	4.4	5.8	6.9	4.3	5.3	6.9
SCAMMON	2.4	3.2	3.9	3.3	4.1	4.8	3.8	4.6	5.4	4.5	5.5	6.4	5.7	6.7	7.8	6.1	7.5	8.6	7.0	8.5	9.3
SCANLAN	*	2.1	3.1	*	3.1	3.8	*	3.5	4.2	*	4.0	4.7	*	4.3	5.5	*	4.8	6.1	*	5.3	6.8
SCHILLER	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.6	3.2	3.8	2.8	3.4	4.1	3.0	3.7	4.4	3.3	4.2	5.4	3.0	3.7	4.9
SCHLEY	1.3	2.0	2.9	1.7	2.9	3.5	2.7	3.6	4.5	3.4	3.9	4.8	3.3	4.1	5.4	2.5	4.3	5.7	-	-	-
SCHMID	1.6	2.6	3.1	2.4	3.8	3.7	3.2	3.9	4.4	3.2	4.0	5.0	4.1	5.1	6.2	4.5	5.7	6.9	4.6	5.9	7.4
SCHNEIDER	1.7	3.0	3.6	3.1	3.7	4.5	3.2	3.8	4.9	3.4	4.1	4.7	4.4	5.4	6.5	4.4	5.6	6.8	5.2	6.3	7.5
SCHUBERT	3.2	3.6	4.2	3.7	4.5	5.2	4.1	4.6	5.5	5.1	5.7	6.4	5.5	6.3	7.3	6.4	8.4	9.6	6.3	8.3	9.6
HANSON PK. Bc.	2.7	3.4	4.3	2.5	3.5	4.0	3.7	4.4	5.3	3.8	5.0	5.7	5.2	5.9	7.2	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-
SCOTT	1.5	2.0	2.8	2.2	2.8	3.7	3.0	3.7	4.0	3.3	4.0	4.7	3.4	4.1	5.0	3.7	4.8	6.7	3.7	5.0	7.1
SEWARD	2.0	2.7	3.3	3.1	3.9	4.7	4.0	4.5	5.2	4.8	5.1	6.4	5.0	6.0	7.2	5.3	5.9	7.4	5.6	6.8	8.4
SEXTON	1.8	2.7	3.3	2.3	3.0	3.6	3.1	4.1	5.0	3.6	4.4	5.1	4.3	4.9	5.6	4.8	6.0	7.1	5.5	6.6	8.0
SHAKESPEARE	1.4	1.8	2.3	1.7	2.2	2.7	2.3	2.9	3.5	2.7	4.0	4.7	3.1	4.1	5.0	3.8	4.5	5.9	3.9	4.7	6.4
SHEPARD	1.3	2.1	2.6	2.1	2.7	3.5	3.1	3.8	4.4	3.7	4.3	5.2	3.7	4.6	6.1	4.2	5.1	7.2	5.1	6.1	7.6
SHERIDAN, M.	1.8	2.5	3.5	3.2	4.0	4.6	2.8	3.9	4.8	4.2	4.8	5.6	4.8	6.3	7.1	4.7	5.6	6.4	-	-	-
SHERIDAN, P.	1.9	2.5	3.0	2.6	3.3	4.2	2.8	3.6	4.4	3.1	4.1	5.0	3.9	4.9	6.2	4.4	5.5	6.7	5.1	6.2	7.5
SHERMAN	1.5	2.0	2.7	1.6	2.8	3.6	2.3	3.0	3.8	3.0	3.9	4.9	3.0	3.9	4.8	3.2	4.4	5.4	3.5	4.4	5.9
SHERWOOD	1.9	2.4	2.9	2.4	3.0	3.6	2.9	3.4	4.1	3.4	4.2	5.0	2.8	3.5	4.3	-	-	-	-	-	-
SHIELDS	2.5	2.9	4.0	3.1	3.9	4.6	3.6	4.4	5.1	4.5	5.5	6.6	4.9	6.5	7.9	5.5	7.4	8.9	6.9	8.8	9.8

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
SHOESMITH	2.5	3.1	3.8	3.1	3.8	4.9	3.9	4.4	5.6	4.4	5.2	6.6	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-
SHOUP	2.0	2.8	3.4	2.8	3.3	4.1	3.0	4.0	4.8	3.1	4.0	5.1	3.3	4.4	5.6	4.3	5.7	7.2	4.7	6.3	7.[illegible]
SIMPSON ELC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	6.[illegible]
SKINNER	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	3.8	4.7	5.2	ISD	ISD	ISD	4.8	6.3	8.[illegible]
SMITH	2.4	2.9	3.4	2.7	3.5	4.1	3.3	4.0	4.7	3.6	4.4	5.0	3.9	4.7	5.8	4.7	5.7	7.5	4.6	6.1	7.[illegible]
SNYSER	2.9	3.8	4.3	3.2	4.1	4.8	4.1	4.8	5.6	5.0	5.9	6.8	5.4	6.4	7.9	6.2	7.9	9.1	7.5	8.6	9.9
SNYTH	2.1	2.6	3.1	2.7	3.2	4.1	2.8	3.5	4.1	3.1	4.0	5.0	3.0	3.9	4.5	3.5	4.4	5.9	4.1	5.1	6.6
SOLOMON	3.2	3.7	5.1	3.7	4.1	5.0	4.4	4.8	5.5	5.4	6.2	7.7	6.7	7.7	8.7	7.1	8.1	9.3	8.5	9.4	10.7
SPALDING SPECIAL	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD
SPALDING SP. Br.	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD
SPENCER	1.7	2.4	2.9	2.5	3.1	3.6	2.6	3.1	3.8	3.0	3.7	4.3	2.6	3.4	4.1	2.9	4.8	6.0	4.2	5.9	7.3
SPRY	1.5	1.9	2.5	1.7	2.5	3.3	2.6	3.4	4.2	3.2	3.8	4.7	3.7	4.8	5.7	2.7	3.8	4.8	-	-	-
SPRY UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	7.4	x	x	8.0
STAGG	1.2	1.8	2.6	1.8	2.8	3.3	2.6	3.5	4.4	2.7	3.5	4.8	3.6	4.5	5.5	4.3	5.4	6.8	4.9	6.3	7.6
STEVENSON	3.0	3.8	4.4	4.0	4.5	5.3	4.8	5.4	6.1	5.0	5.8	6.9	5.9	7.2	8.7	7.1	8.2	9.4	7.7	9.3	10.3
STEWART	1.4	1.9	3.0	2.3	3.1	4.1	2.5	3.2	4.2	3.1	4.0	5.1	3.7	4.8	6.9	4.3	6.3	8.6	4.3	5.0	6.5
STOCKTON	1.8	2.6	3.1	2.3	3.1	4.1	2.6	3.4	4.4	3.1	4.2	5.2	3.6	4.5	5.5	3.6	4.3	6.0	-	-	-
STOCKTON UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.4	6.0	7.7	4.4	5.7	7.7
STONE	3.6	4.2	5.2	3.6	4.1	4.7	4.6	5.2	5.9	5.3	6.0	7.3	5.7	6.6	7.8	6.6	7.9	9.3	7.6	8.6	10.1
ANGEL GRDN. Br.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
STOVE	1.7	2.5	3.1	1.8	2.7	3.6	2.5	3.2	4.0	3.1	4.0	5.0	3.2	4.4	5.4	4.0	5.1	6.6	3.9	5.2	6.6
STURGIS EVGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	5.7
SUDER	*	2.1	2.7	*	3.0	3.4	*	3.5	3.9	*	3.4	4.3	*	4.1	4.9	*	4.3	5.1	*	4.7	5.7
SULLIVAN	2.0	2.6	3.4	2.6	3.5	4.5	3.0	4.0	4.8	4.0	4.8	6.0	4.1	5.6	7.0	4.6	6.2	8.1	5.2	6.9	8.3
SUMNER	x	x	2.6	x	x	3.6	x	x	4.1	x	x	4.6	x	x	6.2	x	x	7.4	x	x	7.2
SUTHERLAND	3.2	4.1	4.8	4.1	5.0	5.7	4.9	5.7	6.3	5.5	6.7	7.5	6.5	7.7	8.9	7.5	8.5	9.5	8.1	9.3	10.4
SWEET	2.1	2.9	3.5	2.4	3.5	4.4	3.1	4.6	5.8	4.1	5.1	6.2	4.2	6.0	7.4	5.5	7.4	8.5	5.8	7.3	9.4
TALCOTT	1.8	2.4	3.0	2.1	2.6	3.3	2.5	3.2	4.0	3.0	4.1	4.9	3.8	4.6	6.5	3.9	5.2	6.6	4.9	6.0	7.3
TANNER	2.0	3.1	3.6	3.0	3.9	4.5	3.7	4.5	5.2	3.8	4.4	5.3	4.1	5.0	6.4	3.0	4.3	4.8	-	-	-
TARKINGTON	3.1	3.6	4.3	3.7	4.8	5.9	4.3	4.8	5.7	4.7	6.2	6.6	6.5	7.1	8.3	-	-	-	-	-	-
TAYLOR	2.7	3.2	3.8	3.1	3.5	4.3	4.2	4.5	5.3	4.7	5.6	6.7	5.5	6.4	6.9	6.9	7.7	9.5	6.7	7.7	8.8
TENNYSON EVGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	5.0
TERRELL	1.0	1.4	2.5	1.8	2.4	3.2	2.5	3.2	4.0	3.1	3.6	4.3	2.8	3.7	4.4	3.1	4.0	5.0	3.2	5.2	5.1
TERRELL Br.	1.9	2.6	3.2	ISD	ISD	ISD	1.6	2.1	2.8	1.7	2.1	2.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TESLA	2.3	2.8	3.6	2.8	4.1	5.0	3.1	3.8	4.4	3.8	4.5	5.0	3.5	4.4	5.3	4.2	5.3	6.1	4.3	5.0	6.5
THOMAS	2.2	2.5	2.7	2.4	3.2	3.9	3.0	3.9	4.4	3.1	4.0	5.6	3.6	4.9	5.7	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-
THORP, J.	1.6	2.1	2.8	2.0	3.0	3.5	2.9	3.6	4.2	3.3	4.0	4.9	3.5	4.3	5.3	4.0	4.7	6.0	5.1	6.7	7.9
THORP, J. EVGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD	4.3	4.9	5.3
THORP, O.	3.1	3.6	4.3	3.8	4.3	5.0	4.1	5.1	5.7	4.5	5.4	6.7	5.5	6.7	7.8	6.4	8.0	9.2	6.8	8.6	9.7
TILTON	1.4	1.8	2.7	2.4	2.9	3.3	2.5	3.0	3.7	2.8	3.5	4.3	2.9	3.6	4.5	3.2	4.2	4.6	ISD	ISD	ISD

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
TONTI	3.0	3.6	4.7	3.3	3.9	4.7	3.8	4.7	5.8	4.8	5.9	6.9	5.3	6.5	7.6	6.3	7.4	8.6	6.9	7.9	9.0
TRUMBULL	1.9	2.6	3.1	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD	ICD
TRUTH	2.5	2.9	3.3	2.7	3.1	3.6	2.6	3.0	3.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TURNER	2.6	3.0	3.5	2.9	3.3	3.9	2.6	3.8	4.6	2.6	3.3	4.5	4.2	4.9	5.7	4.5	5.5	6.5	ISD	ISD	ISD
WASHINGTON,B.Br.	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TWAIN	3.1	3.6	3.9	3.4	4.1	4.6	4.1	4.8	5.6	4.9	5.6	6.9	6.2	7.8	8.5	6.3	7.6	8.7	7.2	8.4	10.1
BAUM Br.	3.0	3.3	3.6	3.7	4.2	4.8	3.8	4.9	5.6	5.3	6.3	7.1	6.0	6.8	7.6	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-
VANDERPOEL	2.6	2.8	3.7	3.3	4.1	4.7	2.8	3.7	4.6	3.6	4.6	5.4	4.7	5.9	7.1	4.6	6.1	8.3	5.5	6.9	8.8
VAN VLISSINGEN	1.6	2.1	2.8	2.3	3.1	3.7	2.7	3.1	3.9	3.0	3.9	4.7	3.4	4.5	5.4	3.4	4.7	5.9	4.2	5.3	6.6
VAN VLSSNGN.Br.	*	2.2	2.8	*	2.7	3.5	*	3.2	4.0	*	3.9	4.8	*	4.0	4.8	*	4.6	5.5	*	3.9	4.4
VOLTA	2.4	3.1	3.9	2.7	3.7	4.5	3.6	4.4	5.4	4.3	5.3	6.5	4.9	6.3	7.7	5.9	7.0	8.6	6.3	7.7	9.8
VON HUMBOLDT	*	1.8	2.5	*	2.3	3.1	*	2.7	3.7	*	3.4	4.3	*	3.6	4.7	*	3.5	4.2	*	3.3	4.2
VON HUMBOLDT Br	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD	x	x	6.6	x	x	5.9
VON STEUBEN UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6.0	7.5	9.0	6.5	7.6	9.0
WACKER	3.0	3.5	4.2	4.0	4.7	5.2	4.1	5.0	5.4	4.5	5.5	6.0	5.3	6.8	7.7	5.9	7.1	8.8	6.6	7.3	9.1
WADSWORTH	1.7	2.1	2.7	2.5	3.0	4.0	2.7	3.5	4.1	3.3	3.8	4.2	3.5	4.1	4.7	3.1	3.9	4.7	-	-	-
WADSWORTH UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.0	4.8	5.5	4.0	4.8	5.9
WALSH	1.7	2.9	3.4	2.5	3.5	4.5	3.5	4.7	5.0	4.2	4.6	5.1	4.4	4.8	5.6	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-
WARD, J.	1.6	2.4	2.8	2.4	2.9	3.4	2.5	3.9	4.4	3.0	4.4	5.2	3.9	4.6	6.1	4.4	5.4	7.1	4.2	5.2	7.1
WARD, L.	1.5	2.1	2.7	1.9	2.7	3.6	2.6	3.0	4.0	2.8	3.6	4.3	3.3	4.1	4.8	3.7	4.5	5.3	4.2	5.0	6.2

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SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
WARREN	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.3	4.4	5.2	4.1	5.1	6.1	4.4	5.0	6.4	5.2	6.5	7.7	5.3	7.2	8.5
WASHINGTON, G.	3.1	3.8	4.4	3.2	4.3	5.0	4.2	5.0	6.0	4.3	5.6	7.0	6.3	7.4	8.5	6.9	8.3	9.5	7.1	8.4	9.6
WATERS	2.4	3.2	3.8	2.6	4.0	4.8	3.7	4.3	5.2	4.0	4.8	6.4	5.1	6.0	7.3	5.3	6.7	8.5	6.5	7.9	9.2
WEBSTER	1.2	1.8	2.8	1.9	2.7	3.6	2.7	3.3	3.9	3.4	4.0	4.7	3.6	4.3	5.8	4.1	5.6	6.8	4.4	5.2	7.1
WENTWORTH	1.5	2.5	3.2	2.1	3.0	3.6	2.5	3.2	4.0	3.2	4.2	5.3	4.0	4.7	5.6	4.5	5.3	6.5	5.3	6.6	8.2
WESTCOTT	1.4	1.9	2.7	2.8	3.1	3.8	2.8	3.3	4.0	3.2	3.9	4.6	3.3	3.9	4.8	3.7	4.9	6.5	4.3	5.5	7.0
W.GARFIELD PK.UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ISD	ISD	ISD	4.6	5.5	7.1	4.2	5.1	6.8
WEST PULLMAN	*	2.5	3.1	*	3.0	3.6	*	3.1	4.0	*	3.8	5.2	*	4.5	5.8	*	5.5	6.8	*	6.0	7.1
WHITE Br.	*	2.5	2.8	*	2.5	3.0	*	3.7	4.7	*	4.4	5.6	*	4.7	6.7	*	5.9	7.5	*	6.9	9.1
WHEATLEY CPEC	3.2	3.5	4.0	3.4	3.7	4.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
WHISTLER	2.6	3.1	3.5	2.6	3.4	4.2	3.5	4.2	4.8	3.7	4.4	5.2	4.0	5.2	6.2	4.4	5.9	6.9	4.9	6.2	7.9
WHITNEY	2.6	3.2	4.0	2.8	3.8	4.7	2.9	3.8	4.9	3.7	4.7	6.0	3.9	5.1	6.9	5.0	6.3	8.1	5.3	6.7	8.1
WHITTIER	1.4	1.9	2.8	2.0	2.7	3.3	2.1	3.0	4.1	3.1	3.8	4.8	3.6	4.6	5.3	3.9	4.4	5.3	ISD	ISD	ISD
WICKER PARK	1.7	3.0	4.1	2.5	3.0	3.4	3.0	3.5	4.3	3.0	3.8	5.1	3.4	4.1	4.8	3.7	4.1	4.4	ISD	ISD	ISD
WICKER PARK UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	?	-	-	-	-	-	*	6.2	7.4	*	5.7	6.9
WILDWOOD	2.8	3.9	4.4	3.6	3.9	5.0	4.5	6.1	6.4	4.8	5.7	7.0	5.7	7.2	8.5	6.7	7.9	9.6	7.6	8.5	9.9
WILLARD	1.7	2.2	2.8	2.5	3.1	3.7	2.4	3.2	4.0	3.3	4.2	5.0	3.4	3.9	4.8	-	-	-	-	-	-
WILLIAMS	x	x	2.6	x	x	3.1	x	x	3.5	x	x	4.3	x	x	5.2	x	x	6.8	x	x	6.8
WIRTH	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5.3	6.6	7.8	6.0	7.1	8.7	6.2	8.0	9.4
WOODSON NORTH	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.6	3.4	4.5	3.1	3.9	5.2	3.6	4.6	5.2	3.5	4.0	4.8	3.4	4.3	4.7

RESULTS OF CITY-WIDE TESTING PROGRAM 1974-75
FOR READING COMPREHENSION EXPRESSED IN GRADE EQUIVALENTS

SCHOOL	AGE CYCLE 7			AGE CYCLE 8			AGE CYCLE 9			AGE CYCLE 10			AGE CYCLE 11			AGE CYCLE 12			AGE CYCLE 13+		
	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_1	Q_2	Q_3
WOODSON SOUTH	2.1	2.8	3.6	2.8	3.6	4.2	ISD	ISD	ISD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
WRIGHT	1.7	2.5	3.3	2.7	3.1	3.8	2.9	3.5	4.2	2.8	3.4	4.2	2.6	3.4	4.2	-	-	-	-	-	-
YALE	1.3	1.9	2.6	2.0	2.8	3.5	3.0	3.6	4.3	3.0	4.1	4.8	4.1	5.2	5.8	3.4	4.2	4.7	-	-	-
YATES	*	2.6	3.1	*	2.7	3.3	*	2.6	3.5	*	3.4	4.4	*	4.2	5.5	*	4.1	5.3	ISD	ISD	ISD
YATES UGC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	7.6	x	x	7.6
YOUNG	2.3	2.8	3.4	3.1	4.0	4.7	3.3	4.3	5.3	4.1	5.1	6.2	5.5	6.9	7.9	6.4	7.9	9.2	6.3	7.4	8.9

- \- - School did not test age cycle.

* - The proportion of students in the Q1 group tested at "chance" level was too high to allow Q1 to be reliable.

x - The proportion of students in the Q1 and Q2 groups tested at "chance" level was too high to allow Q1 and Q2 to be reliable.

ISD - Insufficient enrollment for group data

ICD - Incomplete data

REPORT ON THE CITY-WIDE TESTING PROGRAM

iowa tests of basic skills (form 6)

1976-1977

prepared by:
DEPARTMENT of RESEARCH and EVALUATION

chicago public schools
joseph p. hannon, general superintendent

OVERVIEW
1977 CityWide Testing Program

The battery of Iowa Tests of Basic Skills is administered to students by age cycles on an annual basis. The subtests Reading Comprehension, Vocabulary, Mathematics Concepts, and Mathematics Problem Solving are used. As you may recall, in the 1975 testing program the test selection for an individual student shifted from a decision based on the student's age to a decision based on the student's functioning reading level at the time of testing. Because this change in administrative procedures impacted the mean scores for the city, we are going back only to this year, 1975, in reporting and comparing 1977 results.

Figure 1 is illustrative of the results which are consistent across the four subtested areas. This figure shows grade equivalent scores in reading comprehension for age cycles 7 through 13 at three levels. The first quartile, marked Q^1 is representative of the student whose performance exceeds 25% of his/her classmates; the middle line is the mean score for all children at this age cycle, and the third quartile, marked Q^3, is representative of the student whose performance exceeds 75% of the students at that age cycle. As can be seen,

...the results between 1975 and 1976 were up about one month on the average, and about three months at the first quartile.
...between 1976 and 1977, these gains were maintained, and are up slightly more.

Figures 2, 3, and 4 show similar graphs for the Vocabulary, Mathematics Concepts, and Mathematics Problem Solving subtests. As noted earlier, the results are very similar. Table 1 shows the actual scores used to prepare these various graphs. The report ends with a school-by-school statement, in alphabetical order, showing the results for three quartiles in the four subtested areas.

The 1976 testing occurred in April and early May of 1976. The 1977 testing occurred one year later. It should be recalled that in this period a sixteen day economic layoff occurred. This layoff reduced the amount of learning time by about 9%, meaning that the 1976 to 1977 change scores are based on only about 91% of the instructional time which occurred between 1975 and 1976, when the average one month gain was noted. We are not sure that larger gains would have occurred between 1976 and 1977 without this 9% loss in learning time, but some other information suggests that this is a clear possibility. A study done in the Department of Research and Evaluation has confirmed other research, which shows that skill scores decline over the summer months. Since the summer break was about one month longer between the 1976 and 1977 testings than between the 1975 and 1976 testings, it is reasonable to assume that the amount of loss was more during this summer period in 1976, and that teachers had further to go to simply "catch up" and start making progress. Additionally, in the citywide test score release for 1976, we showed a close relationship between

our Continuous Progress/Mastery Learning reading program placement and average score on the ITBS. Progress through the matrix is a day-by-day activity, and it stands to reason that the loss of sixteen days of instructional time led to lesser total amounts of movement. The children were not, on the average, as far in the matrix of objectives as they might have been with the additional time, and thus it is reasonable to predict scores are lower than they might have been with this sixteen days left in the school calendar. Put another way, as we all learn new skills, as children or adults, the more time we spend learning to master the skills, the better, on the average, we do. Children's performance in reading, vocabulary, and mathematics can be expected to conform to these general relationships. This school-learning time is precious.

As we look forward to this new school year, three very encouraging factors emerge:

1. The Board of Education has adopted a Promotion Policy which, when fully implemented, should be accompanied by more progress through the reading objectives by the average student.

2. A set of criterion-referenced tests, to accompany our basic Continuous Progress/Mastery Learning program at the classroom level.

3. A set of end-of-cycle tests, for the end of the elementary, intermediate, and upper elementary cycles, is in place to help teachers with promotion decisions.

Joseph P. Hannon
General Superintendent of Schools

Table 1. Scores on the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills for 1975-1977

	Age Cycle	Q_1 '75	Q_1 '76	Q_1 '77				Q_3 '75	Q_3 '76	Q_3 '77
Reading Comprehension	7	1.8	1.9	2.0		2.7	2.8	2.8	3.4	3.5	3.5
	8	2.5	2.6	2.6		3.3	3.4	3.4	4.1	4.2	4.2
	9	2.9	3.0	3.0		3.8	3.9	3.9	4.6	4.7	4.7
	10	3.3	3.4	3.5		4.4	4.5	4.6	5.4	5.5	5.5
	11	3.8	4.0	4.0		5.1	5.2	5.3	6.3	6.4	6.4
	12	4.3	4.4	4.5		5.9	6.0	6.1	7.4	7.5	7.5
	13	5.0	5.3	5.4		6.6	6.8	6.8	8.1	8.3	8.3
Vocabulary	7	1.6	1.7	1.8		2.5	2.6	2.6	3.2	3.4	3.4
	8	2.3	2.4	2.4		3.0	3.2	3.2	3.9	4.0	4.0
	9	2.6	2.8	2.8		3.6	3.7	3.7	4.4	4.5	4.5
	10	3.1	3.2	3.3		4.2	4.3	4.3	5.3	5.3	5.3
	11	3.5	3.7	3.7		4.9	5.0	5.0	6.1	6.2	6.2
	12	4.1	4.2	4.3		5.6	5.8	5.8	7.1	7.2	7.2
	13	4.8	5.0	5.0		6.3	6.5	6.5	7.8	8.0	8.0
Mathematics Concepts	7	1.6	1.7	1.7		2.3	2.4	2.4	2.8	3.0	3.0
	8	2.1	2.2	2.3		3.0	3.1	3.2	3.8	3.9	4.0
	9	2.6	2.7	2.9		3.6	3.7	3.8	4.4	4.6	4.6
	10	3.1	3.3	3.4		4.3	4.5	4.5	5.4	5.4	5.5
	11	3.7	3.8	3.9		5.1	5.2	5.3	6.5	6.5	6.6
	12	4.2	4.4	4.4		5.9	6.0	6.0	7.3	7.4	7.5
	13	5.0	5.3	5.2		6.5	6.7	6.7	8.0	8.1	8.2
Mathematics Problem Solving	7	1.7	1.8	1.8		2.3	2.3	2.3	2.7	2.8	2.8
	8	2.1	2.2	2.2		2.9	3.0	3.0	3.6	3.7	3.8
	9	2.5	2.7	2.8		3.6	3.7	3.8	4.6	4.6	4.8
	10	3.0	3.2	3.4		4.3	4.5	4.6	5.5	5.6	5.6
	11	3.6	3.9	4.0		5.1	5.3	5.3	6.4	6.5	6.5
	12	4.6	4.3	4.3		6.0	6.1	6.1	7.3	7.4	7.3
	13	5.3	5.4	5.4		6.7	6.8	6.8	8.1	8.2	8.2

Figure 1. Reading Comprehension Scores 1975-1977

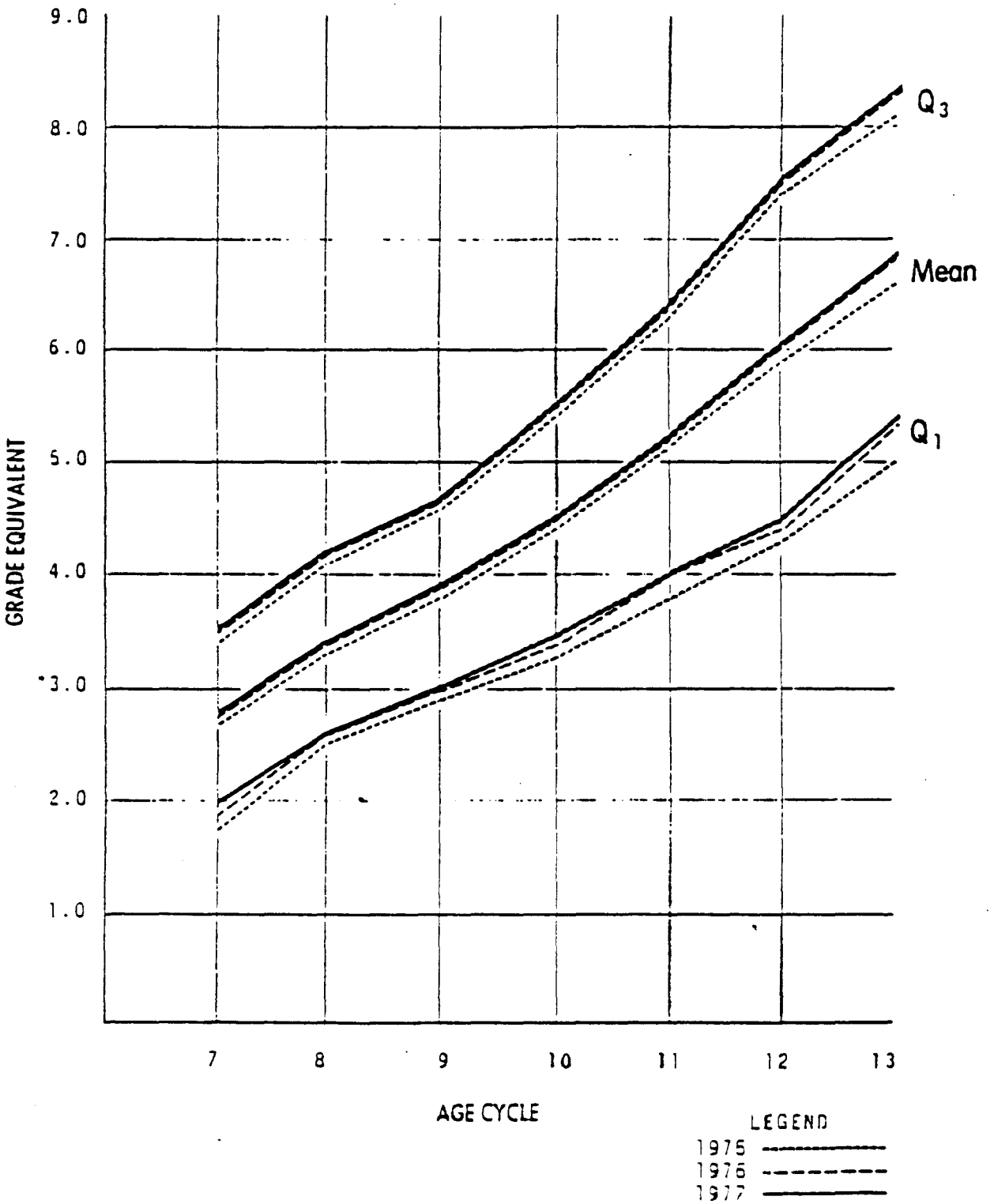
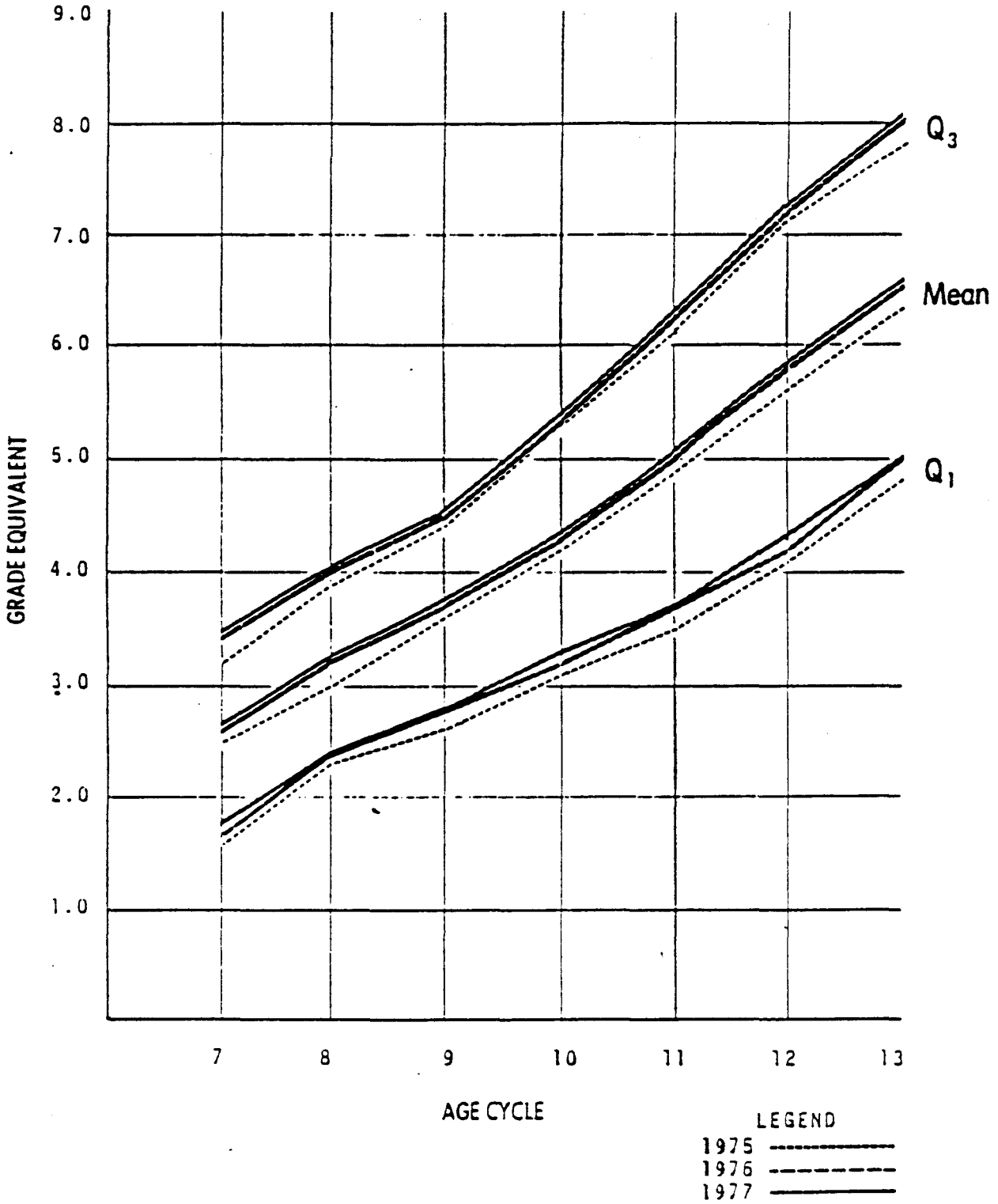


Figure 2. Vocabulary Scores 1975-1977



REPORT ON THE CITY-WIDE TESTING PROGRAM

iowa tests of basic skills (form 6)

1977-1978

prepared by:
DEPARTMENT of RESEARCH and EVALUATION

chicago public schools
joseph p. hannon, general superintendent

OVERVIEW
1978 CityWide Testing Program

The battery of Iowa Tests of Basic Skills is administered each spring in the Chicago Public Schools. Four subtests from the battery are used: Reading Comprehension, Vocabulary, Mathematics Concepts, and Mathematics Problem Solving. In the 1975 testing program the test selection for an individual student shifted from a decision based on the student's age to a decision based on the student's functioning reading level at the time of the testing. Because this change in administrative procedure impacted the mean scores for the city, that year (1975) has been used as the base comparison year for reporting scores thereafter. The procedures for administering the citywide testing program have not been changed since the 1975 modification.

Figure 1, from reading comprehension, is illustrative of the results. These results are typical of the results in the other three subtested areas, which are shown in Figures 2 through 4. For 1978, and the three prior years, the lower line, marked Q_1, is representative of the student whose performance exceeds 25% of his/her classmates; the middle line is the mean score for all children at this age cycle; and the third quartile, marked Q_3, is representative of the student whose performance exceeds 75% of the students at that age cycle.

As can be seen:

...the scores by age cycle have increased for the third consecutive year.
...the upward movement is consistent in all of the four subtest areas.
...across the three years, some of the increases are quite significant. At age cycle 13, for example, in reading comprehension the students are now performing a full half year higher, on the average, than they were in 1975.

In the release of the 1977 citywide test scores, we said "The Board of Education has adopted a Promotion Policy which, when fully implemented, should be accompanied by more progress through the reading objectives by the average student." Figure 5 indicates that this did occur. In this figure, a minus (-) indicates that the percentage of children in that cell decreased between 1977 and 1978, and a plus (+) indicates that the percentage of children in the cell increased between 1977 and 1978. The target level for continuous progress for each age cycle is circled. The figure does show greater percentages of children at the upper level at each age cycle.

The citywide test release of the scores for the 1975-6 year first pointed out the strong relationship between ITBS scores and progress through the matrix of continuous progress reading objectives. This document also predicted that higher citywide reading scores would be obtained when children moved through the matrix of objectives more quickly. The relationship is reflected in the Promotion Policy approved in 1977. Figure 5 shows that the children are moving more quickly, and Figure 1 indicates that the scores are higher.

This 1976 citywide test scores release also stressed that planning for improvement could be based on increased progress through the matrix of objectives and not necessarily on a once-a-year standardized testing program. The importance of the former technique is that monitoring such a plan can be done on a reasonably frequent basis -- say every ten days or two weeks -- using criterion-referenced tests. As was reported to the Board of Education in a General Committee meeting on May 3, 1978, the technology for this "planning for improvement" is now available. Individual school plans for improvement --- not only in reading but along other important areas as well --- will be developed prior to the 1978-9 school year. In the area of achievement, the plans for improvement will call for increased percentages of students at or above the promotion policy levels, and decreased percentages behind these levels. Techniques for translating these school-level plans into an individual learning plan for each child are available to the school principal as well, such that the school level plan for improvement becomes the summation of individual student plans for improvement.

We are heartened by the increased scores across these three years. Perhaps even more important, however, we are heartened that the instructional delivery system we have in place can be used to upgrade performance levels. There is no miracle which will bring the average student to promotion levels next year; but incremental improvement is a realistic expectation. These increased scores, and any future increased performance, are and always will be no more or less than a reflection of instructional effort and delivery by the thousands of teachers in the schools. Moving the average child through the matrix of objectives at a pace which will achieve promotion policy levels is the teacher's task.

As we move to the 1978-9 school year, there is reason for optimism. The scores in Chicago are moving upward, in contrast with well-documented downward declines in scores nationwide. We believe we know why they are moving upward, and that we have the technology to plan for continued upward movement. The Summer Recreational Reading program, if parents and students participate in significant numbers, can help impact next year's student progress report in a very positive manner. The Promotion Policy levels set in 1977 were challengingly high, but we see no reason to doubt the basic assumption upon which they were based --- that the average Chicago school child can achieve these levels.

Joseph P. Hannon
General Superintendent of Schools

Table 1. Scores on the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills for 1975-1978

	Age-Cycle	Q_1 '75	Q_1 '76	Q_1 '77	Q_1 '78	Mean '75	Mean '76	Mean '77	Mean '78	Q_3 '75	Q_3 '76	Q_3 '77	Q_3 '78
Reading Comprehension	7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.5
	8	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.6	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.4	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.2
	9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.8	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.6	4.7	4.7	4.8
	10	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.6	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.7	5.4	5.5	5.5	5.6
	11	3.8	4.0	4.0	4.2	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.4	6.3	6.4	6.4	6.6
	12	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.7	5.9	6.0	6.1	6.2	7.4	7.5	7.5	7.6
	13	5.0	5.3	5.4	5.5	6.6	6.8	6.8	7.1	8.1	8.3	8.3	8.6
Vocabulary	7	1.6	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.7	3.2	3.4	3.4	3.5
	8	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.4	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.0
	9	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.8	4.4	4.5	4.5	4.7
	10	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.4	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.4	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.4
	11	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.8	4.9	5.0	5.0	5.2	6.1	6.2	6.2	6.3
	12	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.4	5.6	5.8	5.8	5.9	7.1	7.2	7.2	7.3
	13	4.8	5.0	5.0	5.0	6.3	6.5	6.5	6.7	7.8	8.0	8.0	8.3
Mathematics Concepts	7	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.0	3.2
	8	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.5	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.8	3.9	4.0	4.1
	9	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.1	3.6	3.7	3.8	4.0	4.4	4.6	4.6	4.8
	10	3.1	3.3	3.4	3.6	4.3	4.5	4.5	4.7	5.4	5.4	5.5	5.7
	11	3.7	3.8	3.9	4.1	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.5	6.5	6.5	6.6	6.7
	12	4.2	4.4	4.4	4.7	5.9	6.0	6.0	6.2	7.3	7.4	7.5	7.5
	13	5.0	5.3	5.2	5.3	6.5	6.7	6.7	6.9	8.0	8.1	8.2	8.4
Mathematics Problem Solving	7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.0
	8	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.2	3.6	3.7	3.8	3.9
	9	2.5	2.7	2.8	3.1	3.6	3.7	3.8	4.0	4.6	4.6	4.8	4.9
	10	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.7	4.3	4.5	4.6	4.7	5.5	5.6	5.6	5.7
	11	3.6	3.9	4.0	4.3	5.1	5.3	5.3	5.5	6.4	6.6	6.5	6.7
	12	4.6	4.8	4.8	5.0	6.0	6.1	6.1	6.3	7.3	7.4	7.3	7.5
	13	5.3	5.4	5.4	5.6	6.7	6.8	6.8	7.0	8.1	8.2	8.2	8.4

Figure 1. Reading Comprehension Scores 1975-1978

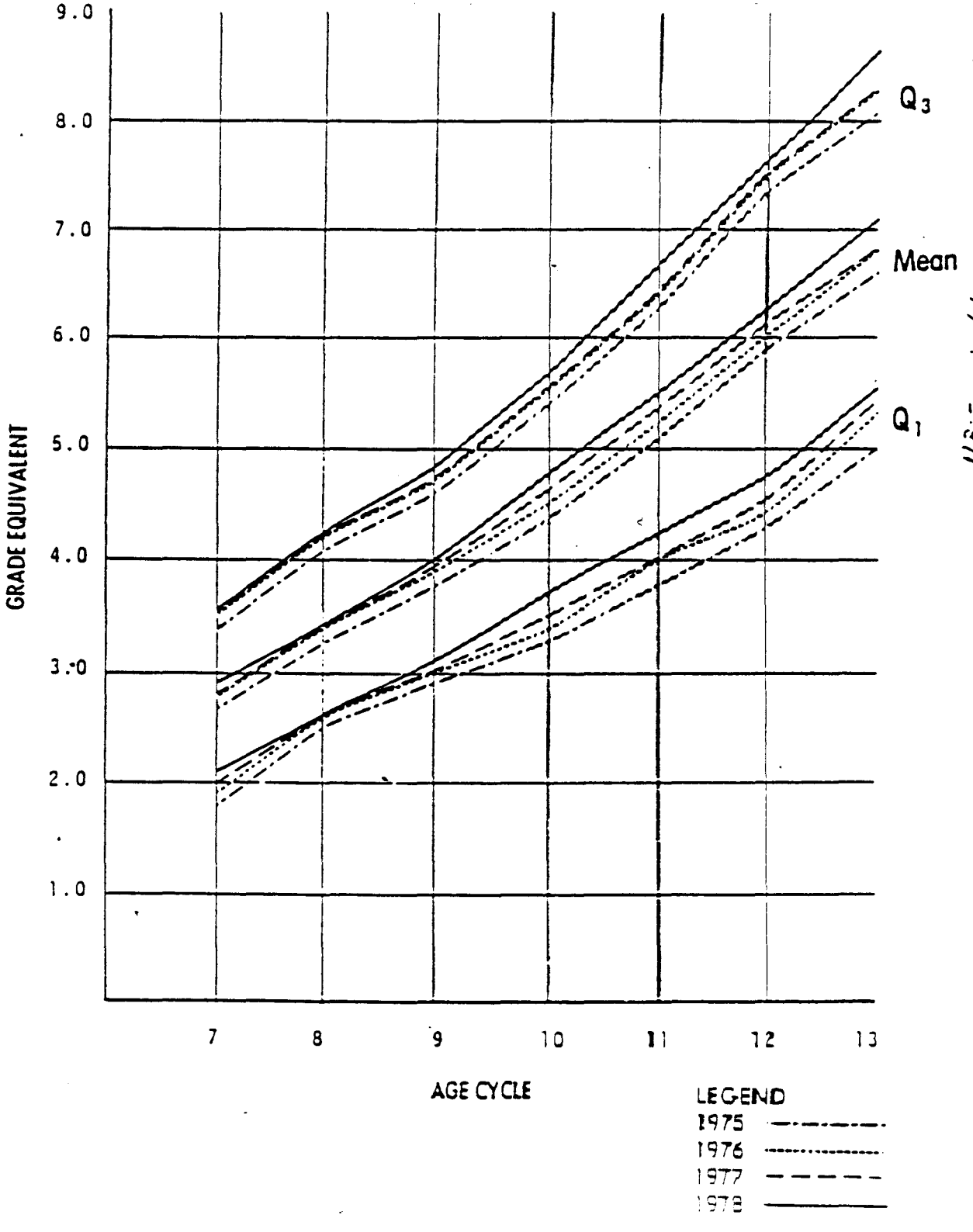
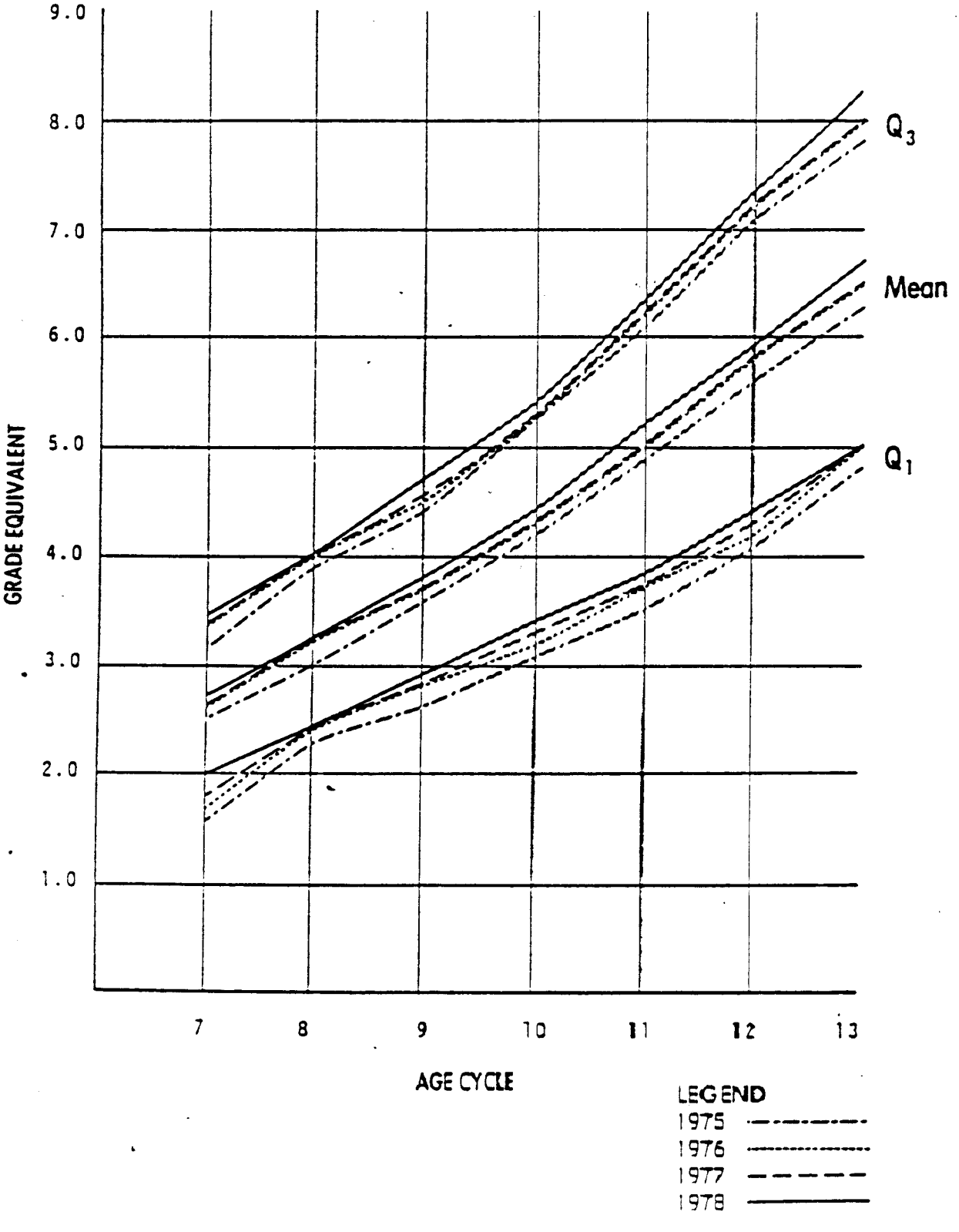


Figure 2. Vocabulary Scores 1975-1978



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1979 CityWide Testing Program

The battery of Iowa Tests of Basic Skills is administered each spring in the Chicago public schools. Four subtests from the battery are used: Reading Comprehension, Vocabulary, Mathematics Concepts, and Mathematics Problem Solving. In the 1975 testing program, the test selection for an individual student shifted from a decision based on the student's age to a decision based on the student's functioning reading level at the time of the testing. Because this change in administrative procedure altered the mean scores for the city, that year (1975) has been used as the base comparison year for reporting scores thereafter. The procedures for administering the Citywide Testing Program have not been changed since the 1975 modification.

Table 1 summarizes the scores in the four subtest areas from 1975 through 1979. This table shows the mean scores for the city as well as scores for the first and third quartiles. The score at the first quartile (marked Q_1) is representative of the student whose performance exceeds 25% of his/her classmates; the third quartile (marked Q_3) is representative of the score of the student whose performance exceeds 75% of the students at that age cycle. Figures 1 through 4 show this information graphically.

Table 1 indicates the following:

...for the fourth consecutive year the scores for Chicago public school students are up.

...for Vocabulary and Mathematics Concepts the scores have increased by one month in five of the seven categories.

...in Reading Comprehension and Mathematics Problems Solving the scores have increased by one month in three of the seven categories.

...the scores do not decline at any point.

...Figure 1 which shows the Reading Comprehension scores for 1975, 1977 and 1979 graphically, shows that the largest amount of growth is at the upper age cycles where the greatest differences between Chicago mean scores and national averages have existed.

The norms for the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills were developed in 1970 and are, therefore, nearly ten years old at this point. The decline in student performance on the college entrance exams over the past fifteen years is well documented. Significant declines in performance on elementary school achievement test batteries like the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills are also known to have occurred. Thus, while these results may not be cause for complete satisfaction, Chicago scores are moving up during a time period when national averages are moving down. The gap between Chicago averages and national averages is being reduced.

In the release of the 1977 test scores, we said "the Board of Education has adopted a Promotion Policy which, when fully implemented, should be accompanied by more progress through the reading objective by the average student." In the 1978 test score release, Figure 5

indicated that this did occur. Figure 5 in this report indicates that this kind of progress also occurred between 1978 and 1979. In this figure a minus (-) indicates that the percentage of students in the cell decreased between 1978 and 1979, and a plus (+) indicates that the percentage of children in the cell increased between 1978 and 1979. (A zero indicates that there was no change between the two years.) The target level for Continuous Progress for each age cycle is circled. The figure does show greater percentages of children at the upper level at each age cycle. The Citywide Test Release for 1975-76 first pointed the strong relationship between ITBS scores and progress through the matrix of Continuous Progress reading objectives. Figure 5 of this report, and Figure 5 of the 1978 report, show that the children are moving more quickly through the matrix, and Table 1 indicates that the scores are higher.

The increases in scores, while not as large as we would like, came in the face in an extremely severe Chicago winter. Schools, like nearly every other activity in the city, were disrupted and a large amount of very valuable instructional time was lost. However, the School-by-School Plan for Improvement was implemented. This plan sets specific goals for each school wherein the percentage of students overage for their Continuous Progress level is to be reduced, and the percentage of students underage for their Continuous Progress level is to be increased. These projections are based on the performance in other schools most similar to the given school. With a year of experience in this planning and monitoring process behind us, this school-level planning for improvement should operate more smoothly in the coming year. The planning for improvement and monitoring of the plan should be accompanied by faster movement of students through the matrix of objectives. In the past, faster movement through the matrix has been accompanied by higher performance in the annual standardized testing program. With citywide scores continuing to increase, there is cause for optimism as we move into the 1979-80 school year.

Joseph P. Hannon
General Superintendent of Schoo

Table 1. Scores on the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills for 1975-1979

Age Cycle	Q_1 '75	'76	'77	'78	'79	Mean '75	'76	'77	'78	'79	Q_3 '75	'76	'77	'78	'79
7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5
8	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2
9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.8	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.6	4.7	4.7	4.8	4.9
10	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.7	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.7	5.4	5.5	5.5	5.6	5.7
11	3.8	4.0	4.0	4.2	4.3	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.5	6.3	6.4	6.4	6.6	6.7
12	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.7	4.9	5.9	6.0	6.1	6.2	6.3	7.4	7.5	7.5	7.6	7.7
13	5.0	5.3	5.4	5.5	5.7	6.6	6.8	6.8	7.1	7.2	8.1	8.3	8.3	8.6	8.7
7	1.6	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.7	3.2	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.5
8	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.6	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.1
9	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.8	3.9	4.4	4.5	4.5	4.7	4.7
10	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.4	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.5	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.4	5.5
11	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.8	3.9	4.9	5.0	5.0	5.2	5.2	6.1	6.2	6.2	6.3	6.3
12	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.5	5.6	5.8	5.8	5.9	6.0	7.1	7.2	7.2	7.3	7.4
13	4.8	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.2	6.3	6.5	6.5	6.7	6.8	7.8	8.0	8.0	8.3	8.4
7	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.0	3.2	3.3
8	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.6	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.8	3.9	4.0	4.1	4.0
9	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.1	3.1	3.6	3.7	3.8	4.0	4.0	4.4	4.6	4.6	4.8	4.8
10	3.1	3.3	3.4	3.6	3.7	4.3	4.5	4.5	4.7	4.8	5.4	5.4	5.5	5.7	5.8
11	3.7	3.8	3.9	4.1	4.2	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.5	5.6	6.5	6.5	6.6	6.7	6.8
12	4.2	4.4	4.4	4.7	4.8	5.9	6.0	6.0	6.2	6.3	7.3	7.4	7.5	7.5	7.6
13	5.0	5.3	5.2	5.3	5.5	6.5	6.7	6.7	6.9	7.0	8.0	8.1	8.2	8.4	8.4
7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.0
8	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.6	3.7	3.8	3.9	3.9
9	2.5	2.7	2.8	3.1	3.1	3.6	3.7	3.8	4.0	4.0	4.6	4.6	4.8	4.9	4.9
10	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.7	3.7	4.3	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.8	5.5	5.6	5.6	5.7	5.7
11	3.6	3.9	4.0	4.3	4.4	5.1	5.3	5.3	5.5	5.6	6.4	6.6	6.5	6.7	6.7
12	4.6	4.8	4.8	5.0	5.0	6.0	6.1	6.1	6.3	6.3	7.3	7.4	7.3	7.5	7.6
13	5.3	5.4	5.4	5.6	5.6	6.7	6.8	6.8	7.0	7.1	8.1	8.2	8.2	8.4	8.4

Figure 1. Reading Comprehension Scores 1975-1977-1979

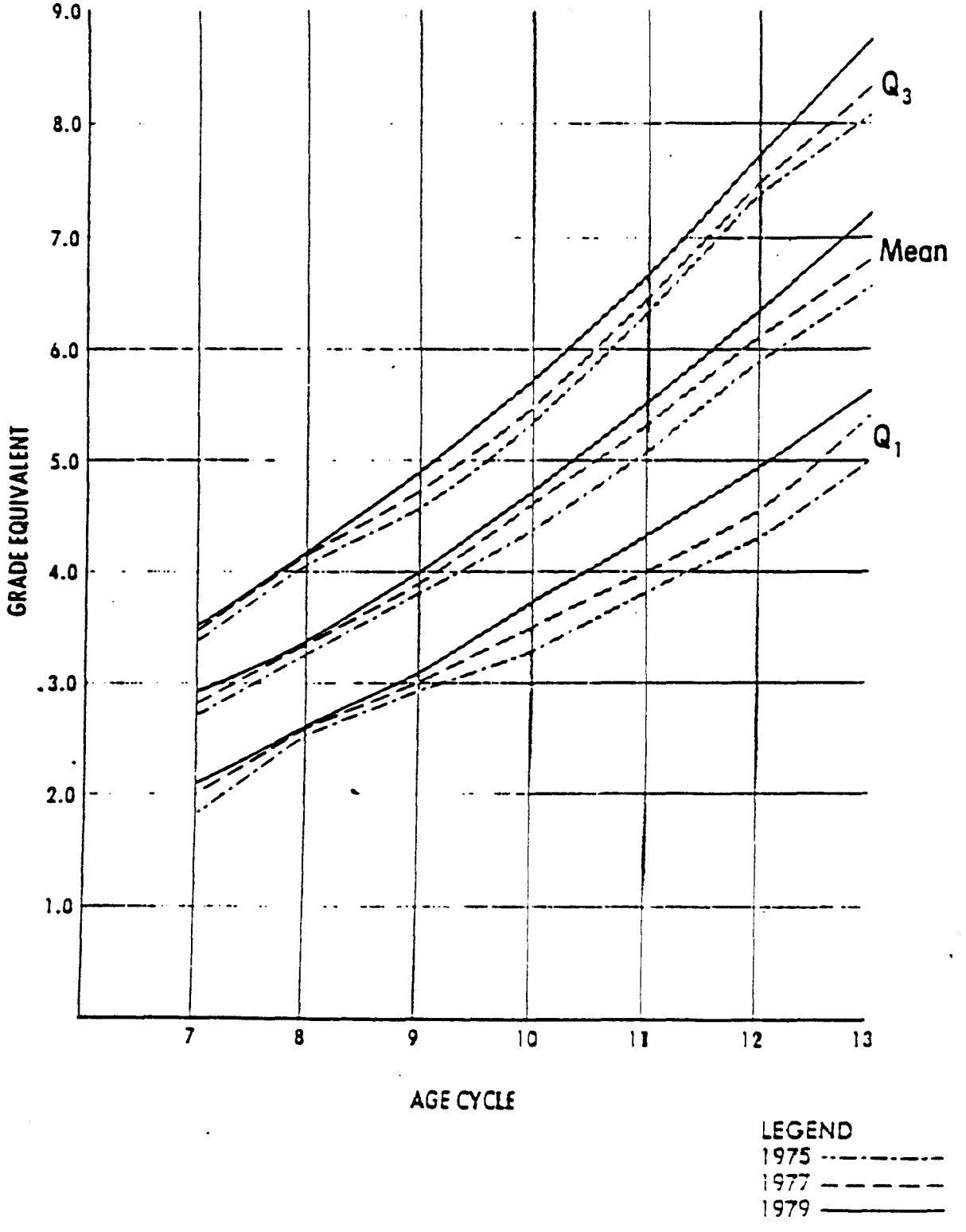


Figure 1A: Reading Comprehension Scores
1975-1979

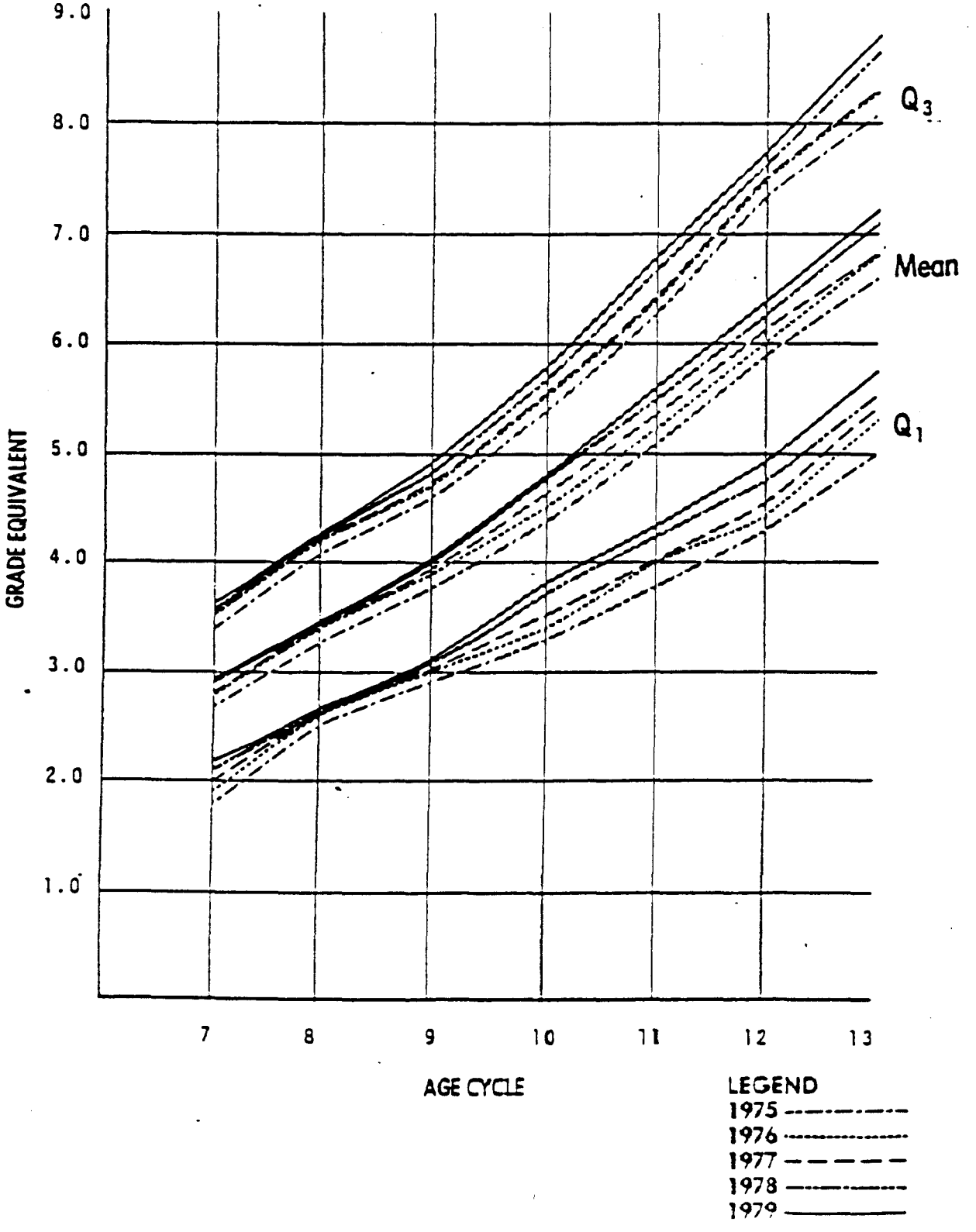
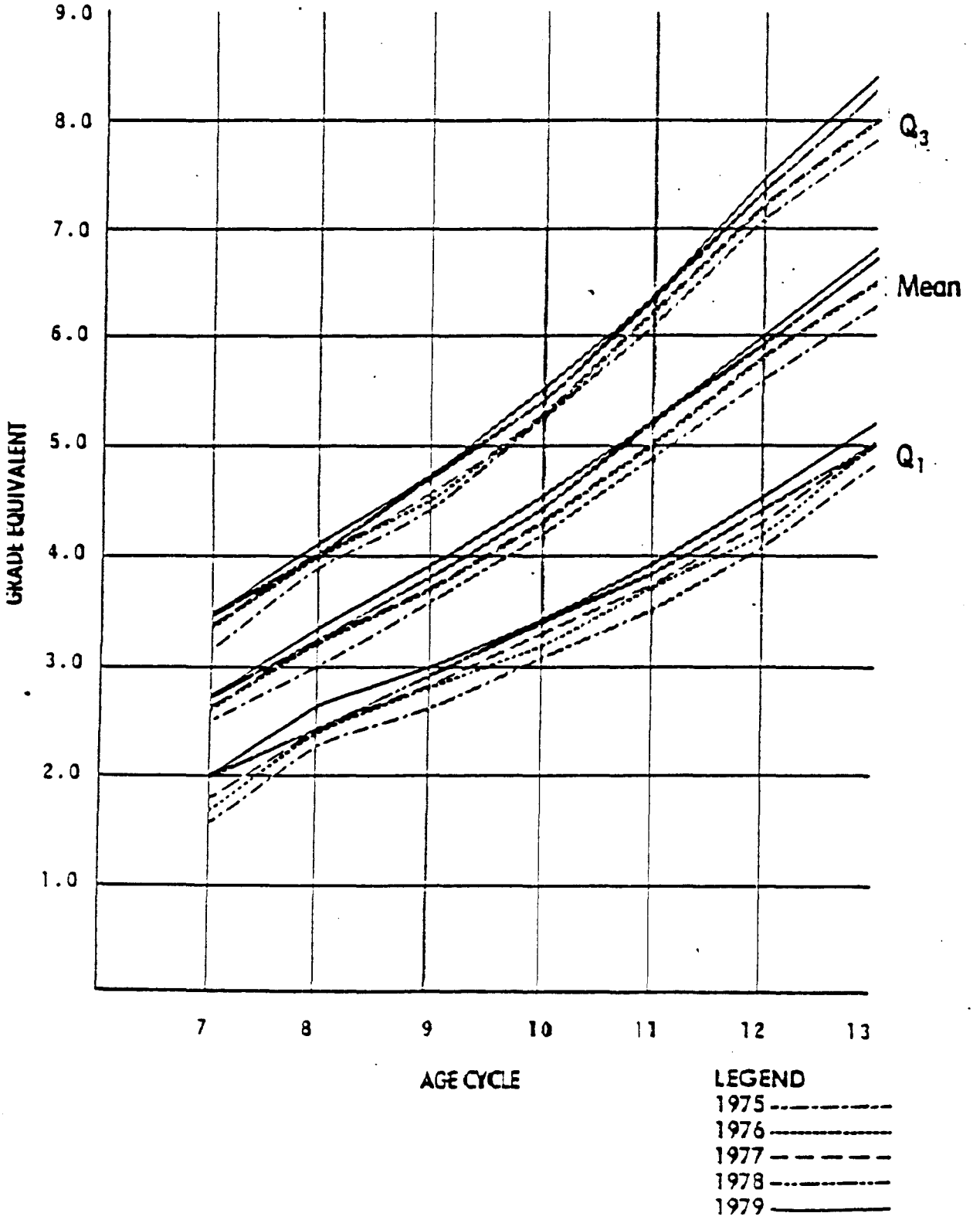


Figure 2. Vocabulary Scores 1975-1979



REPORT ON THE CITY-WIDE TESTING PROGRAM

1979-1980

Iowa Tests of Basic Skills (form 6)

prepared by:
Department of Research, Evaluation and
Long Range Planning

Chicago Public Schools
Angeline P. Caruso
Interim General Superintendent of Schools

OVERVIEW
1980 City-Wide Testing Program

The battery of Iowa Tests of Basic Skills is administered each spring in the Chicago public schools. Four subtests from the battery are used: Reading Comprehension, Vocabulary, Mathematics Concepts, and Mathematics Problem Solving. In the 1975 testing program, the test selection for an individual student shifted from a decision based on the student's age to a decision based on the student's functional reading level at the time of the testing. Because this change in administrative procedure altered the mean scores for the city, that year (1975) has been used as the base comparison year for reporting scores thereafter. The procedures for administering the City-Wide Testing Program have not been changed since the 1975 modification.

Table 1 summarizes the scores in the four subtest areas from 1975 through 1980. This table shows the mean scores for the city as well as scores for the first and third quartiles. The score at the first quartile (marked Q_1) is representative of the student whose performance exceeds 25% of his/her classmates; the third quartile (marked Q_3) is representative of the score of the student whose performance exceeds 75% of the students at that age cycle. Figures 1 through 4 show this information graphically.

Table 1 indicates the following:

...For the fifth consecutive year the scores for Chicago public school students are up.

..Reading Comprehension scores have increased by one month in four of the seven age cycles.

...Vocabulary scores have increased by one month in three age cycles.

...Mathematics Concepts scores have increased by one month in four age cycles.

...Mathematics Problem Solving scores have increased at least one month at each age cycle.

...The mean scores do not decline at any point.

...Figure 1 which graphically displays Reading Comprehension scores for 1975 (base year), 1976, 1978 and 1980, shows that the largest amount of growth is at the upper age cycles where the greatest differences between Chicago mean scores and national averages have existed.

...For Q_1 (25th percentile) which is an indication of how well the slower developing students are progressing, of the 28 possible comparisons with last year, the scores are higher this year at 17 age cycles, the same at 10 cycles and lower (one month) in only one cycle. The gain of three months in Mathematics Problem Solving at age 13 is especially encouraging.

...For Q_3 (75th percentile), which is an indication of how well the faster developing students are progressing, of the 28 possible comparisons with last year, the scores are higher this year at 13 age cycles, the same at 14 cycles and lower (one month) at only one cycle. As with Q_1, there is a gain of three months in Mathematics Problem Solving at age 13.

The norms for the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills Form 6 were developed in 1970 and are, therefore, nearly eleven years old at this point.

The publisher has constructed a table which permits a comparison between national ITBS norms for 1978 with those for 1970. On the basis of this comparison Chicago public schools are actually closer to present national averages then test results indicate. While this may not be cause for complete satisfaction, Chicago scores are moving up while national averages are moving down, and the gaps between Chicago averages and national averages continue to be reduced.

This year's reading test results are consistent with data showing that relatively more students are progressing through the continuous progress/mastery learning objectives at a faster rate in 1979-80 than they did in 1978-79. Figure 5 on page viii indicates that at every age level, the percent of students who are receiving reading instruction at the target continuous progress reading level or above has increased from 1978-79 to 1979-80. In this figure a minus (-) indicates that the percentage of students in the cell decreased between 1979 and 1980, and a plus (+) indicates that the percentage of children in the cell increased between 1979 and 1980. The appropriate continuous progress levels for each age cycle are circled. The pluses are all concentrated to the right and the minuses to the left, indicating an increased percentage of children at the higher levels for each age cycle. This is evidence of how well staff continued to implement the reading instructional management system, in particular the Continuous Progress/Mastery Learning Program, the Intensive Reading Improvement Program (IRIP), and the Promotion Policy.

While the consistent improvement in Mathematics Problem Solving at all ages is the result of the interaction of many factors, two programs which have been recently implemented should be mentioned -- the Continuous Progress Mastery Learning Program (CP/ML) in mathematics and the Intensive Mathematics Improvement Program (IMIP). The CP/ML in mathematics is an instructional management system in mathematics similar to that in reading. The IMIP is a staff development program in which an additional teacher is provided to each of 69 schools to conduct in-service and give individual support to the classroom teacher.

The ITBS results and Figure 5 on page viii are indicative of the strength and resiliency of the Chicago school system and how well teachers, principals and other staff responded to the challenges created by the financial crisis. We are grateful to the dedicated school staffs and those who supported them for their sustained efforts on behalf of the children of Chicago.

Angeline P. Caruso
Interim General Superintendent of Schools

SCORES ON THE IOWA TESTS OF BASIC SKILLS FOR 1975-1980

	Age Cycle	Q_1 '75	'76	'77	'78	'79	'80	Mean '75	'76	'77	'78	'79	'80	Q_3 '75	'76	'77	'78	'79	'80
Reading Comprehension	7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.6
	8	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.5	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2
	9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.8	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.6	4.7	4.7	4.8	4.9	4.9
	10	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.8	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.7	4.7	5.4	5.5	5.5	5.6	5.7	5.7
	11	3.8	4.0	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.3	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.5	5.6	6.3	6.4	6.4	6.6	6.7	6.7
	12	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.7	4.9	5.0	5.9	6.0	6.1	6.2	6.3	6.4	7.4	7.5	7.5	7.6	7.7	7.7
	13	5.0	5.3	5.4	5.5	5.7	5.9	6.6	6.8	6.8	7.1	7.2	7.3	8.1	8.3	8.3	8.6	8.7	8.7
Vocabulary	7	1.6	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.8	3.2	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.5
	8	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.5	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.1
	9	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.8	3.9	3.9	4.4	4.5	4.5	4.7	4.7	4.8
	10	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.5	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.5	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.4	5.5	5.5
	11	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.8	3.9	4.0	4.9	5.0	5.0	5.2	5.2	5.3	6.1	6.2	6.2	6.3	6.3	6.5
	12	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.5	5.6	5.8	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.0	7.1	7.2	7.2	7.3	7.4	7.4
	13	4.8	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.2	5.3	6.3	6.5	6.5	6.7	6.8	6.9	7.8	8.0	8.0	8.3	8.4	8.5
Mathematics Concepts	7	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.8	3.0	3.0	3.2	3.3	3.4
	8	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.6	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.8	3.9	4.0	4.1	4.0	4.1
	9	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.6	3.7	3.8	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.4	4.6	4.6	4.8	4.8	4.8
	10	3.1	3.3	3.4	3.6	3.7	3.8	4.3	4.5	4.5	4.7	4.8	4.8	5.4	5.4	5.5	5.7	5.8	5.7
	11	3.7	3.8	3.9	4.1	4.2	4.3	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.5	5.6	5.6	6.5	6.5	6.6	6.7	6.8	6.9
	12	4.2	4.4	4.4	4.7	4.8	4.9	5.9	6.0	6.0	6.2	6.3	6.4	7.3	7.4	7.5	7.5	7.6	7.7
	13	5.0	5.3	5.2	5.3	5.5	5.7	6.5	6.7	6.7	6.9	7.0	7.1	8.0	8.1	8.2	8.4	8.4	8.4
Mathematics Problem Solving	7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.1
	8	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.6	3.7	3.8	3.9	3.9	3.9
	9	2.5	2.7	2.8	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.6	3.7	3.8	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.6	4.6	4.8	4.9	4.9	5.0
	10	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.7	3.7	3.8	4.3	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.8	4.9	5.5	5.6	5.6	5.7	5.7	5.9
	11	3.6	3.9	4.0	4.3	4.4	4.5	5.1	5.3	5.3	5.5	5.6	5.7	6.4	6.6	6.5	6.7	6.7	6.8
	12	4.6	4.8	4.8	5.0	5.0	5.2	6.0	6.1	6.1	6.3	6.3	6.4	7.3	7.4	7.3	7.5	7.6	7.6
	13	5.3	5.4	5.4	5.6	5.6	5.9	6.7	6.8	6.8	7.0	7.1	7.2	8.1	8.2	8.2	8.4	8.4	8.7

Figure 1. Reading Comprehension Scores

1975 (Base Year)
1976-1978-1980

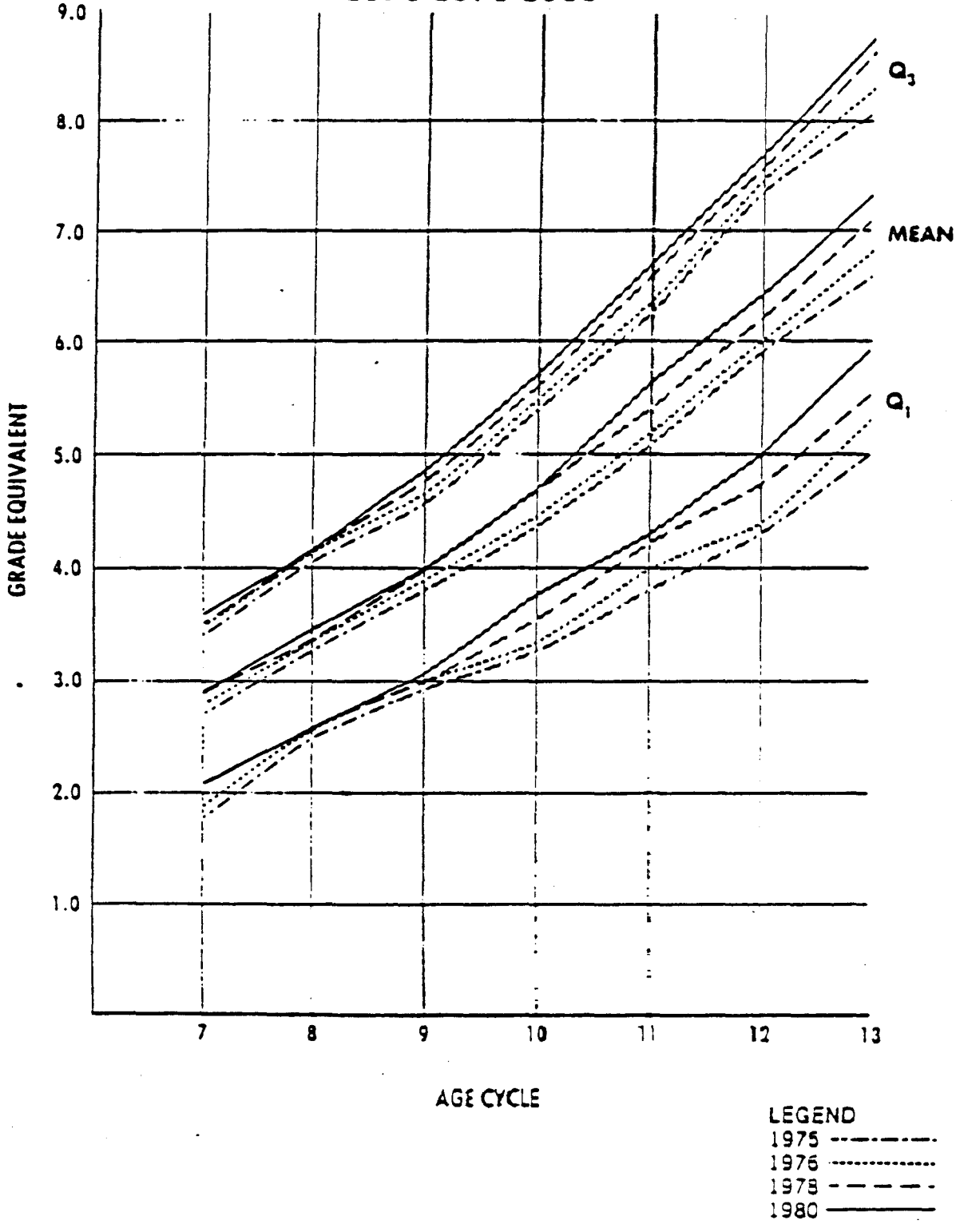
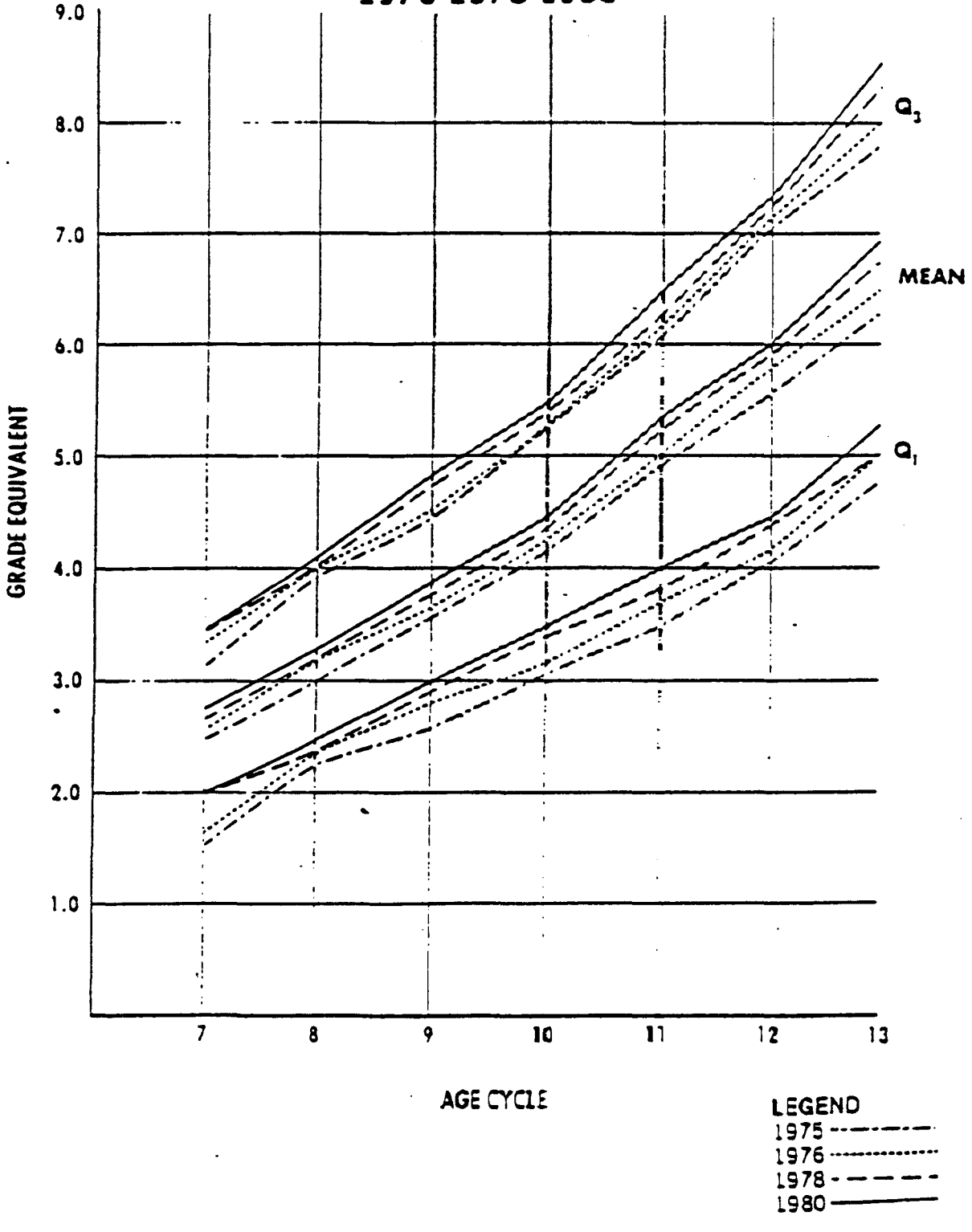


Figure 2. Vocabulary Scores
1975 (Base Year)
1976-1978-1980



APPENDIX B

The guiding philosophy of a program of Continuous Progress-Mastery Learning is based upon the concepts that--

learning is a continuous process

each person progresses at his own rate

each person masters skills and concepts according to his individual abilities

each person has a certain readiness for steps of learning according to his level of maturity and experience at any given point in his life.

1974

Continuous Progress
Mastery Learning Program

Dear Parent:

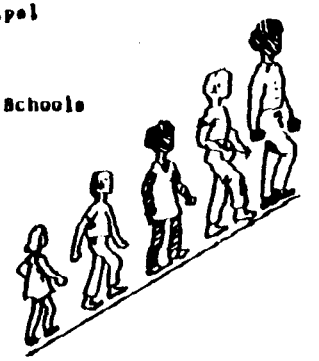
We know that you are interested in your child's progress in school and that you wish to work with the school to provide the best possible education for him. This booklet describes the program of learning in which your child will participate during his elementary school years. If you would like more information, please feel free to visit us at school.

Sincerely yours,

Principal

JAMES F. REDMOND
General Superintendent of Schools

BOARD OF EDUCATION
CITY OF CHICAGO



Advancement through the program of Continuous Progress-Mastery Learning may be compared to the movement of an escalator--

Each child begins when he is ready.

Each child starts at the beginning.

Progress is measured one step at a time.

Movement is always forward.

There is no point at which progress stops.

There is invisible, carefully tended machinery, such as the planning and organization provided by the education staff, which supports the forward-moving goal.

Some children move at a faster or slower pace than others, but all reach their goal.

At some times, at some places, it may be necessary to slow down, but progress is resumed as soon as possible and is always forward moving.

What It Means to Your Child

Continuous Progress-Mastery Learning is a program of learning which--

encourages your child to learn at his own rate

provides for your child's continuous educational growth

assures that your child will develop confidence in his ability to achieve

provides your child with the opportunity to achieve success at all levels in the elementary school

helps your child to develop a sense of pride in himself and in his accomplishments.

Your child will be instructed in reading and mathematics in learning blocks of work called levels. Each level contains certain skills and understandings which your child must master to be competent in reading and mathematics. He will complete the requirements of these levels at his own rate of speed, guided by his teachers.

A child who progresses at an average pace usually completes the elementary school in eight years. It is possible that your child will move through the programs at a faster or a slower pace. The levels a child will complete when moving at an average pace are indicated in the table below.

	Primary Program	Intermediate Program	Upper Program
Reading	A B C D E F G H →	J K L →	M and N
Mathematics	A B C D E F G H →	J K L M N R S T →	U and V

The program may provide for movement from room to room during the school year if necessary to insure that your child is working at his proper level.

As your child progresses in the program, he will continue his work in mathematics and language arts as well as in the areas of social science, natural and physical science, music, art, and physical education.

APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Ernestine G. Riggs has been read and approved by the following committee:

Dr. Gerald L. Gutek, Director
Professor, Educational Leadership and
Policy Studies, Loyola

Dr. Robert C. Cienkus
Associate Professor,
Curriculum and Human Resource
Development, Loyola

Dr. John Wozniak
Professor Emeritus, Loyola

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

December 6, 1989 — Date

Gerald L. Gutek — Director's Signature